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ABSTRACT

Basic material on the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe is presented in this teachers' guide in such a way that teachers can incorporate it into the daily curriculum or utilize it through special units or projects. The guide is divided into two sections, one covering the Soviet Union, the other Eastern Europe. The Soviet Union section discusses geography, education, life style and cost of living, government and the Communist Party, the centrally planned economy, and religion. Each topic followed by suggestions for classroom or individual study projects. Also included in this section are a U.S./Soviet price comparison, a chronology of Soviet history, information on the Cyrillic alphabet, and a USSR word search game and geography puzzle (answers included). The Eastern Europe section contains general information as well as discussions of these individual countries: Albania, Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Hungary, Poland, Rumania, and Yugoslavia. Maps of all countries are provided. The section also includes a 69-item basic bibliography for Eastern Europe, a chronology for each country discussed, and a word search game and geography puzzle (answers provided). (JB)

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ED312209

THE SOVIET UNION
AND
EASTERN EUROPE

Teachers' Guide

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

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SO 020 338

Prepared by
the Indiana University
Russian and East European Institute
Spring 1987
Revised Spring 1989

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

This publication is intended to provide K-12 teachers with some basic material on the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe. It is hoped that teachers, in turn, will share the information with students via incorporation into the daily curriculum or through special units or projects on the Soviet Union and/or Eastern Europe. Suggestions are made for classroom or individual study projects. Puzzles are provided to familiarize students with vocabulary.

Outreach services of the Indiana University Russian and East European Institute can be utilized to supplement the guide. These services include the Outreach Speakers' Bureau, which sends university faculty and graduate students free of charge to speak to your classroom, school or community group on almost any Russian, Soviet or East European area or language topic; presentations to meetings of social studies teachers (state-wide, system- or district-wide, or individual schools); honors seminars for high school students, providing an opportunity for students to visit the Bloomington campus as well as explore a USSR/EE topic; a lending library of audio-visual materials for which the only cost is return postage and insurance; and the willingness to review lesson plans and classroom projects for accuracy, to offer suggestions, or answer general questions about this world area. Our outreach program is rather flexible, and if you'll let us know how we can best serve your needs, we'll make an effort to respond.

Write to the address below to request a free copy of the REEI Resource Guide to Teaching Aids in Russian and East European Studies. Other helpful publications include items produced in conjunction with the ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education. Teaching About the Soviet Union is a two page document that lists what is important to teach about the Soviet Union, where it belongs in the curriculum, teaching strategies, and references and ERIC resources available. The ERIC Reference Sheet on the Soviet Union (11 pages) lists professional organizations, journals and newsletters, National Resource Centers, ERIC resources, journal articles, and student and teacher resources. For copies of these documents (50¢ each) write to ERIC, 2805 East Tenth Street, Suite 120, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405.

The original concept and production of this guide must be credited to Karen S. Niggle who served as REEI Outreach Coordinator from 1984 to 1989. REEI graduate assistants contributing their talents to the original document (1986-87) included Robin Bisha, Melissa Bokovoy and Phyllis Schrock. Eastern Europe additions and revisions were effected in 1988-89 through graduate assistants Tim Costello, John Cox, Shaun Gelsinger and Sue Panek.

For information on REEI services contact Outreach Coordinator Ellie Valentine-Jakubiak.

Russian and East European Institute
Indiana University
Ballantine Hall 565
Bloomington, Indiana 47405
(812) 855-7309; 855-0391

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Please note that each section on individual countries of Eastern Europe is preceeded by a map of that country.

THE SOVIET UNION

GEOGRAPHY

Land mass: area in square kilometers 22,402,076; miles 8,649,489. Two and one- half times the size of the US.

The USSR is divided into 15 Union Republics (SSR), 20 Autonomous Republics (ASSR), 8 Autonomous Regions (AR), and 10 Autonomous Areas (AA). All these divisions are made on the basis of national groups which occupy the territories. The 15 Union Republics are Armenia, Azerbaijan, Belorussia, Estonia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kirgizia, Latvia, Lithuania, Moldavia, Russian Federation (RSFSR), Tadzhikstan, Turkmenistan, Ukraine, and Uzbekistan. The Union Republics are the primary administrative divisions of the country.

Each republic contains a considerable number of ethnic groups. The largest ethnic groups in the USSR in descending order are: Russians (137.4 mil.); Ukrainians (42.3 mil.); Uzbeks (12.5 mil.); Belorussians (9.5 mil.); Kazakhs (6.6 mil.); Tartars (6.3 mil.); Armenians (4.2 mil.); Georgians (3.6 mil.); Moldavians (3.0 mil.); Lithuanians (2.9 mil.); Tadjiks (2.9 mil.); Turkman (2.0 mil.); Germans (1.9 mil.); Kirgiz (1.9 mil.); Jews (1.9 mil.); Chuvash (1.8 mil.); Latvians (1.4 mil.); Bashkirs (1.4 mil.); Moldavians (1.2 mil.); Poles (1.2 mil.); Estonians (1.0 mil.); others (9.8 mil.) The US government does not recognize the Latvian, Estonian and Lithuanian republics as part of the USSR--in protest to the annexation of the Baltic region by the USSR in the 1940's.

To encourage loyalty to the Soviet regime, the official stand of the Soviet government is to encourage separate cultural identities, but Russians (52% of population) continue to dominate the government and language. Russian is the offical language of administration throughout the country. To advance in one's career, Russian language skill (and being "like the Russians") is a necessity. Television promotes Russian language and culture. Though each republic has its own film industry and TV language channel the bulk of Soviet programming is in Russian. Russians are encouraged to "colonize," move to non-Russian republics to ensure that Russians maintain at least a strong minority presence in other USSR republics. It is the policy of "colonization" and monopolization of positions of power in non-Russian republics by the Russians that led to the recent (1986-87) riots in Kazakhstan.

As one of the 15 republics, Russia (large, populous, politically influential) is part of the Soviet Union, not synonymous with it.

The position of the country relative to the US helps in understanding Soviet agriculture, transportation, and exploitation of natural resources:

> Leningrad is on the same latitude as Anchorage, Alaska. Moscow is on the same latitude as the far north reaches of Ontario Province on the Hudson Bay--farther north even than the southern tip of Alaska. Southernmost regions of the USSR are on a comparable latitude with the northern border of Alabama, but are mountainous so have different weather than Alabama.

Due to the far northern location, significant portions of the USSR experience the summer phenomenon known as "white nights" and its winter counterpart of extended darkness.

There are large expanses of land unsuitable for agricultural cultivation. The country ranges from desert to forest, steppes to swamp, mountains to tundra. There is a short growing season for a large part of the country. Areas with warmth often lack water, and areas with water may lack warmth. Much of the country's water comes from snow.

Natural resources are for the most part abundant, but much is located under swamps and in permafrost areas, so extraction is difficult and expensive. Of necessity, the Soviet Union has developed the technology to transport electricity across great distances.

The large size of the country has an impact on its management. The USSR has excellent public transportation systems in the cities--one is never more than a very short distance from a bus or subway line and they're efficiently run. (It has to be since cars are hard to get.) They have an excellent rail system--second only to the US in total track, but first in amount transported by rail. Weather and soil conditions make it impossible for the Soviets to have a highway system comparable to the US. Roads in areas such as Siberia, experience repeated freezing and thawing, resulting in potholes, cracks and buckles beyond those we know here in Indiana. The distance between communities, the availability/proximity of repair materials and the sheer number of miles of roads affected, make it practically impossible to keep the roads in good condition. The needs of northern cities are met by a variety of transportation services, including ships (until the ports freeze), trucks and airplanes. Most rivers in the USSR flow north and are frozen much of the year so are not useful for trade.

The IU Russian and East European Institute has a book, filmstrip and cassette tape (available for loan at no charge) that discusses Siberia, including the use (and dangers) of ice rivers for trucking in the winter.

Exercises: 1. Compare latitudes of USSR with other countries. Discuss relationship to climate and affect on transportation and lifestyle. Have students think of ways their lives would differ if they lived in Siberia in winter (artificial soles on shoes would crack in cold; homes would have a different look because of need to preserve heat; diet would change as caloric needs increased and food selection was limited due to transportation problems) 2. Mapmaking- draw and label a map showing certain features of the USSR-cities, mountains, rivers, or even crops, rainfall and industrial production of various regions. Perhaps overlays for a map on the overhead projector covering various aspects of climate or production. 3. Diary- describe what you would see on a train (or car) trip between Tiblisi (or Alma Ata, Baku) to Leningrad. 4. Skits- a) compare occupations of various regions as affected by geography; b) central planners discussing transport problems; c) meteorologist-weather report for nation. 5. Write a report on the problems and challenges presented by the geography (eleven time zones; winter transportation; why are people attracted to live in areas with harsh climates?). 6. The Trans-Siberian Railway is the longest in the world. Write a report on what one might see on a rail trip. 7. Define white nights, tundra, taiga, permafrost.

Research Projects: 1. List all the Union Republics and their capital cities. 2. Write a report on one national group of the USSR. Describe how this group is defined as a nationality (religion.....) 3. Compile a list of all (c.100) national groups living in the USSR. 4. Pick a significant feature of USSR natural geography and write a report (Lake Baikal, Ural Mountains, Caspian Sea, Volga River). Write a report on the problems and challenges presented by the geography (eleven time zones; winter transportation; why are people attracted to live in areas with harsh climates?). 6. The Trans-Siberian Railway is the longest in the world--write a report on what one might see on a trip.

The Indiana University Russian & East European Institute has available for free loan a USSR map "game," transparency masters for the Soviet Union and its republics, a film strip, cassette tape and accompanying book on Siberia, and a 15 minute 1/2" VHS videotape on the Soviet Union titled GLOBAL GEOGRAPHY: "Why Does Planning Occur?" The tape was produced by the Indiana Department of Education, 1988.

EDUCATION

School is much more regimented in the Soviet Union than in the US. Students study six days per week (September-May) with preparation for vocations beginning very early in the student's career. Testing and tracking begin in the mid-teen years. Although all classes are taught in Russian, the grammar of the language of a national republic is also part of each regional curriculum. Education in the lower grades is used as a means of linguistic and cultural assimilation. Russian is necessary because Russian is the teaching language in the major institutions of higher education as well as the major publications. Organization and content of Soviet education is much the same in all parts of the country since it is centrally planned. The same books are used throughout the country. Teachers have the option of using nationally prepared lesson plans.

Important adjuncts to school are the youth groups: the Octobrists (under age 10), the Young Pioneers (over age 10), and the Young Communist League in Russian Komsomol (age 14-28). (See attached.)

Children start school at age 6, often after preschool or kindergarten but not always. There are 11 "forms" instead of 12 grades as in USA. All students start foreign language study in 5th grade. Schooling is compulsory for a minimum of nine years. These years are for general education, and no tracking (or streaming) takes place. Approximately 60% of students go on to complete the last two years of the full ten/eleven year program and prepare for competitive college entrance exams. Approximately 1/3 of these are admitted to college. Completion of ten/eleven years is necessary to enter higher education. See the attached description of recent Soviet education reforms.

Secondary specialized schools prepare students for a wide variety of occupations, with most students entering after nine years of school and remaining for four more years. Some choose to finish the full eleven-year program and spend only two years to complete the specialized program. Other students go to vocational-technical schools which teach the theory and practice of a particular trade. Upon graduation, all students are assigned to a job by committee. Students and their parents may try to influence the decision of the committee since these assignments affect future career possibilities. The jobs are to be held for at least three years before a change is made, but this is not a hard and fast rule, and it is sometimes possible for students to break their work contracts.

There are special schools for physically and mentally handicapped students which follow the ordinary curriculum as close as possible. Other special schools gear students for careers in the military, the arts, and science and mathematics. Another special type of school is the boarding school--usually reserved for children of single parents or orphans. Some schools have extended school days to accomodate working parents.

The average number of hours spent on homework is four--the youngest have two hours; the oldest five-six hours. Many parents think this is too much. Even first graders have homework right away.

Higher Education

The best institutes and universities are located in the larger cities of European Russia, particularly Moscow and Leningrad. Specialized institutes are often more prestigious than universitites. (For example, the Moscow institutes of foreign languages, foreign affairs and cinema are especially popular.) A student's higher education usually determines his or her entire career. There is no returning to school for a career change later in life, although there are evening education programs such as those offered to provide workers an opportunity to complete their higher education.

Academic and Komsomol records, entrance exam placement and connections play a role in college acceptance. If not admitted on the first try, options include work and/or night school; vocational/technical school, and trying year after year to gain college admission. If males are not in college by age 18 they must serve two years in the military. They then have preference for college admission. College males have military deferment but may end up serving after college or for a longer period in the Soviet equivalent of our military reserves. Males and females who do two years work in a factory or field of their academic choice, are more likely to gain college admission.

Teachers are trained in special pedagogical institutes. There are several degrees that can be earned through graduate study which are roughly equivalent to our master's and Ph.D. degrees as well as a program that could be termed a "super Ph.D." This last group composes the top academics in their fields.

Classroom scenario: It is a typical Saturday and students are in school, seated at their desks awaiting a test. The girls are wearing dark skirts with attached bibs, white blouses, and red neckties which cross diagonally at the throat. Several of the girls wear one or two large, flouncy bows to ornament their hair. The boys wear dark pants, white shirts and red neckties. They all sit quietly in their seats, feet on the floor arms crossed (hand to elbow) on top of their desks. Tanya wants to ask a question, so she raises her hand, lifting it so that her elbow still remains on the desk. The teacher acknowledges her gesture and Tanya stands beside her desk and asks, "Svetlana Alexandrovna, what day is the field trip to Lenin's tomb?" The teacher replies that the trip is scheduled for Tuesday and reminds the students to wear warm coats and gloves.

It is time for the exam to begin: The teacher says, "Sasha, what is four multiplied by nine?" Sasha stands and responds "Madam Svetlana Alexandrovna, four multiplied by nine is thirty-six." The teacher responds "Correct" and Sasha sits down. He is relieved that his exam is over.

This is an example of a disciplined classroom. Even so, the classroom atmosphere can be quite lively. Hands are often vigorously waved in an attempt to capture the teacher's attention. Students wear uniforms everyday and they rise to greet the teacher when he or she enters the room. They sit when they are invited to do so by the teacher.

It is common that exams are oral rather than written and that each student is asked only one or two or three questions--providing just a few opportunities to impress the teacher with their mastery of the subject.

NOTE: As students age they are increasingly less likely to wear school uniforms. Older students in some areas wear jeans to school.

Exercises: 1. Learn patronymics for each student and teacher and practice classtime "Soviet style." Take father's first name and for boys add -ovich, for girls add -ovna. For example, Brad Petrovich or Ann Alexandrovna. 2. Essay, diary or skit: a) as parents plan the educational career of your new baby; b) a group of kids discussing their educational futures.

The Indiana University Russian & East European Institute has available for free loan a 60 minute 1/2" VHS videotape titled "Video from Russia--Children: The Priviliged Class." The film provides glimpses of how parents, educators and the system relate to children from the cradle to the first school years. Produced by Danmarks Radio,

1988.

The OCTOBRISTS

Most students become involved in the political organization associated with their age group while in the first grade. Seven-year-olds, upon entrance into school, automatically become Young Octobrists. They wear a five-pointed badge depicting Lenin as a boy. Octobrists work in groups of five along with an older Pioneer to prepare themselves for membership in the Pioneers. The "laws" Octobrists are taught to obey are:

1. Octobrists are future Pioneers.
2. Octobrists are diligent, study well, like school, and respect grown-ups.
3. Only those who like work are called Octobrists.
4. Octobrists are honest and truthful children.
5. Octobrists are good friends, read, draw, live happily.

The PIONEERS

At age nine or ten Soviet children don red scarves and join the Pioneers. Membership is highly desirable and prized by most students. During the third year of school, only one half of the students are selected for membership. The remaining half is initiated into the organization at various points during the fourth year.

Comparable organizations in the US are the Girl and Boy Scouts, but there are some important differences. Membership in the Scouts is largely a reflection of the choice of the individual and his or her parents. Although membership in the Pioneers is theoretically voluntary, in fact it is a prerequisite for a healthy social life while growing up in the USSR.

The basic unit of the Pioneer Organization is in the classroom and is linked with other class units into a school-wide organization. By involving students in meetings and activities, the Pioneer organization teaches the students about the political philosophy of the Communist party and socializes young Soviets in values the leadership considers beneficial for society: good study and work habits, respect for authority, and conformity to group or collective principles.

Soviet youth are inducted into the Pioneer Organization with fanfare and ceremony. They make the following pledge at their initation:

The Pioneer adheres to the motherland, the party, communism.
The Pioneer prepares to become a Komsomol member.
The Pioneer emulates the heroes of stuggle and labor.
The Pioneer reveres the memory of the fallen fighters and prepares to become a defender of the motherland.
The Pioneer is persistent in studies, work and sports.
The Pioneer is an honest and true comrade and always stands for the truth.
The Pioneer is a friend and leader of the Octobrists.
The Pioneer is a friend to other Pioneers and to the children of workers of all countries.

Although political indoctrination, discipline and mobilization of children for social and moral purposes are clearly factors involved in membership in the organization, the activities of the Pioneers are primarily social, academic, cultural and recreational.

The KOMSOMOL

During the last two years of high school, students may choose to apply for membership in the Komsomol organization (All-Union Leninist Communist Union of Youth). Unlike the Octobrists and Pioneers, membership in the Komsomol is more selective. Still, about seventy percent of those eligible to join are admitted. To become a member, the Soviet student must be admitted by the selection committee of the school Komsomol organization. Membership in the Komsomol is considered to be an achievement, and is almost a prerequisite for future membership in the Communist Party.

Komsomol activities are generally overseen directly by the Communist Party. Members are encouraged to play an active role in political education and socio- political life. They organize and participate in a variety of activities for the Octobrists, Pioneers and themselves including: tutoring, study groups for academic and political purposes, construction brigades, agricultural harvest teams, factory work, and leisure activities.

Besides those activities sponsored by various political organizations, young people in the USSR enjoy a variety of sports and leisure activities. In the cities students love going to the circus, theaters, ballets and concerts. As in the US, kids play card games, hopscotch, soccer and tag. In the winter, children in the north ice-skate, cross-country ski, and throw snow balls.

From Soviet Students Speak to America: An Inside View of Soviet Schools
1984 Tides Foundation/US-USSR Youth Exchange Program

Recent Soviet Education Reforms

From the Soviet publication USSR 100 Questions and Answers (Novosti Press, Moscow, 1984).

The draft of the CPSU Central Committee's Guidelines for Reform of General and Vocational Schools put forward for nationwide discussion in January 1984 and endorsed by the USSR Supreme Soviet in May said that over a period of five to ten years universal secondary education would be supplemented with a universal vocational training.

This complex and important task has been necessitated largely by the fact that our economy is being geared to intensive development, a process which will be completed by the late 1980s. Over this period the country's productive forces will experience deep-going changes, and this will naturally affect the system of personnel training and, consequently, the system of schooling.

We have experience in such reorganization. In the 1930s we adopted universal four-year education, in the 1950s eight-year and in the 1970s ten-year education. Today our ten-year school gives pupils, in addition to a secondary education, certain work or vocational skills. So far their "practical grounding" has been weaker than their "theoretical grounding." The opposite is the case with those who finish vocational schools, which admit pupils who have had at least eight years of schooling and train them as skilled workers.

Secondary vocational schools (SVS) have managed to achieve a closer unity of "theory" and "practice". Their pupils leave with a certain qualification in a trade (like those at ordinary vocational schools) as well as a school-leaving certificate (like those issued at ordinary secondary schools). Today the country has nearly 4,600 secondary vocational schools; this is more than half the number of all kinds of vocational schools. The reorganization of vocational schools into secondary vocational schools will obviously continue.

Sooner or later all young workers who start work in industry will have had not only a general secondary education but also broad vocational training in a trade.

In the main the school reform will have been carried out before 1995. We shall mention only a few of the planned measures. For example, children will start school at the age of six, not seven as now; incomplete secondary schooling will last nine years, not eight, and complete secondary schooling will last eleven years, not ten. The age of our school-leavers will not change, since children will have started school at six instead of seven. This will reduce the information load and the pupil will have more time and energy for adequate vocational training.

After nine years at school some pupils will of course go on to the 10th and 11th forms, and afterwards to higher educational establishments. Others will go to specialized secondary schools to study for four more years. Those who want to become skilled workers within three years and at the same time hold a school-leaving certificate equivalent to that of an eleven-year general school (which gives the right to be admitted to a higher educational institution) will go to vocational schools. Someone who has completed eleven years of schooling and who goes to a secondary vocational school (because, say, he has failed to gain admittance to a college) will have to study for just one instead of three years there. In any case he is guaranteed good vocational training combined with a general secondary education. This combination will be even more closely interrelated because the quality of instruction and education in the first nine years of schooling and in the 10th and 11th forms will be raised considerably.

The system of vocational guidance will be improved with a view to helping pupils choose a trade or career. An immediate task is to improve the contents of school curricula and textbooks, removing from them material that is superfluous and too complicated, to modernise teaching methods and aids, and to provide secondary and vocational schools with the latest equipment, including electronic computers. In short, our aim is to improve considerably the quality of teaching, of general education and especially of vocational training, and to intensify polytechnical education.

Marriage, Children and the Home

The only legal marriage in the USSR is a civil one. Religious ceremonies can be had, but the civil ceremony must also occur. Marriages (and births) are registered at ZAGS, the local registry office. It is traditional to take bouquets of flowers and place them on any of the numerous monuments and memorials in any Soviet city to commemorate such occasions. After the wedding the newly married couple usually lives with the husband's parents while awaiting an apartment of their own.

Husbands and wives both hold jobs but it is the women who are responsible for maintaining the home and for virtually all cooking and child care. Men help with the shopping, which is no mean feat as one generally must go to a different store for each type of product (bread, vegetables, meat, dairy products). Each family typically has one child (this varies from republic to republic--Central Asians have larger families), despite psychological and small monetary incentives from the government to encourage more than three children. A woman becomes a "Mother Hero" after ten children.

Small families are the result of spatial, financial, and time constraints. The extended families usually live in a two or three room apartment (not 2-3 bedrooms, but 2-3 rooms). Abortion is seen as the only reliable means of birth control. Some women have more than five abortions in their lifetimes and most have had at least one.

The divorce rate is almost as high as in the US. One in three Soviet marriages ends in divorce. The divorce procedure is as simple as the marriage procedure, although this has not always been the case. Child custody is generally awarded to the mother. Due to the housing crunch in Soviet cities, it is not uncommon for couples to continue living together in the same apartment after divorce.

Resource: Carola Hansson, Moscow Women

Food, Clothing and Other Consumer Goods

A predominant feature of Soviet shopping is the line. At each stage in the shopping process one waits in at least two lines--one line to pay for the item and then a second line to pick up the item at the department. There are exceptions to this where an item is selected up from a shelf and then taken to a line to pay. However, measured items such as cheese and meat are almost always paid for before selection. Soviet citizens (and curious foreign tourists) often join in any line that has formed and only later find out what the line is for. Why? Consumer goods are scarce. In the centrally planned economy sofas, refrigerators, and washing machines are not high priority items. The better appliances are often of foreign manufacture and available only to the privileged. Waiting lists are very long for cars (over a year's wait). Clothing is of generally poor quality and very expensive in relation to spendable income. An overcoat or a pair of boots can cost more than one month's salary. Often only one color of any given item is available (for example: orange socks). A family has to budget over a period of years to keep each member clothed and shod--father gets new boots this year; mother a new coat next year--and often must buy an item in advance of need or risk not finding it when it's needed.

Food availability is more closely tied to the growing season than in the US. Soviets get plenty to eat, but the meals are often monotonous because of a lack of variety of foods (fresh, frozen, canned) to choose from. Soviet ideas on nutrition are significantly different from ours as well. For example, the average Soviet citizen believes that large amounts of fat are a necessary part of the daily diet. Due in part to dietary insufficiences, the lifespan of Soviet men and women is decreasing (the only industrialized society where this is currently happening).

Housing

Soviets pay a significantly smaller percentage of their monthly income for housing than do Americans. There are no extra costs, such as heating--the rent is all inclusive. Soviet housing options include communal appartments, State owned apartments, cooperative apartments, and private free-standing houses, with apartments being the most common option in cities. "Single family dwellings" (often shared by more than one family) are usually found only outside of cities. Private housing construction cannot be contracted, so barter arrangements are made with friends and acquaintances for construction of privately owned homes (or dachas)--or the homeowners do all the work themselves.

The amount of living space per family is much less than in the US, and varies from republic to republic. (The official standard requirement for space allotted per person is 27 square feet. The requirement is not always met.) "Trade boards" are a common sight and provide citizens a place to post notices in hopes of exchanging apartments.

Medicine and Health Care

Doctors do not necessarily have the high pay and respect such professionals enjoy in the US. Pediatricians and general practitioners are frequently low paid women. The average citizen does not have access to the best medical care available. It is routine to pay a doctor an extra amount beyond the set rate for services. This isn't considered bribery, but a bonus for a job well done. The people see the doctors as underpaid and feel the extra money is worth it. Food for hospitalized patients is usually provided by their own families. Alcoholism is a continuing problem that the new regime is making strong efforts to combat.

Work

Every adult Soviet citizen is obligated to work. Work begins either upon completion of compulsory schooling or after completing higher education. Upon graduation from school students are required to serve three years either in the armed services on a specified job assignment. The student is usually given a choice of three possible assignments and permitted to select one. This method is used to ensure a work force in geographic areas that are not popular for migration. After the three year period, there are relatively few restrictions to labor mobility. (Although travel may be restricted to some cities due to housing shortages.) The benefits of a job in a prestigious or particularly important enterprise are great. Enterprises typically have their own stores, providing an improved selection and savings of time for their employees. They also have their own housing facilities which are often of better quality than that which is not associated with an enterprise or ministry.

A man works to age 60 and a woman to age 55, although many people elect to continue to work beyond the retirement age at less demanding jobs.

Recreation

The enterprise is often important in the recreation activities of the worker. Factories have sports teams (soccer and hockey are favorites) that compete against each other. Enterprises also have their own resorts in such places as Sochi, Yalta or the Baltic Coast. Each worker is entitled to a sojourn at the sanitorium (the resort) during the year. The sanatoriia supplement the private cottage (dacha) that many Soviet citizens may own. Vacations are not always taken as family units. The possibility for foreign travel, usually to Eastern Europe or Finland, exists. There are also opportunities for travel to Western Europe and the US, but these are reserved for the most reliable and privileged. Trips "abroad" are sometimes mixed blessings. Contact with things foreign can hinder career advancement or sometimes cause personal unhappiness. An IU student asked a Soviet woman who had travelled to New York what she had done there. Her response was "Nothing. I didn't want to taste the forbidden fruit."

Soviets enjoy spending their leisure time walking in the park or holding discussions around the kitchen table. Artistic events are numerous and cheap, but tickets are sometimes hard to get.

Aging

The USSR is an aging society. Typical of all industrialized nations the average age of the population is becoming increasingly older. The problem of caring for the elderly devolves onto middle aged women, although frequently the elderly remain at least marginally productive throughout their lives. At present a large army of elderly women take responsibility for much of the country's child care needs and hold positions as coat checkers (coat check rooms are ubiquitous in the USSR) and museum gallery guards. However, there is a two generation gap resulting from WWII, so successive generations of elderly people will be significantly smaller in number, resulting in a problem in filling positions now occupied by this segment of society, especially in meeting child care needs.

Soviet citizens are eligible for pensions after 25 years of service (20 years for women). Pensions are figured as a percentage of the salary earned in the last regular year of employment. The percentage decreases as salary decreases. The minimum pension is approximately 50 rubles a month. 1 ruble = 100 kopeks. You can buy a watch for under 5 rubles. A loaf of bread costs 10 kopeks. A kilo of simple cookies costs 1 ruble (more than you can eat). Fresh fruit (in summer) can cost as much as 5 rubles a kilo, which by weight is not a lot of fruit. Cheap rent may run 20 rubles. A restaurant meal with meat is about 5 rubles. A really fashionable (designer) dress can be as high as 400-800 rubles. A winter coat can cost 300 rubles.

Exercises: 1. Skit- have several people wait in line for some household item. Show how the line system works (saving places while people go to other lines, etc.) and how some people (such as high placed Party members) can get special privileges. 2. Design pie charts showing percent of monthly income spent on housing, food, clothing, education, utilities, entertainment, etc. for several nations. 3. Report on the function of ZAGS (the State Registry Service), the extended family, divorce, production of consumer goods, Soviet high fashion (who wears these clothes?). 4. Skit- debate between husband and wife over whether to have a third child, discussing financial, spatial, time, and labor constraints. 5. Diagram-plan a Soviet apartment for a family of four. Figure how much space there would be and how it would be used. Draw a layout of where you would put furniture, appliances. Find out what type furniture and appliances would be available for Soviets to buy. 6. Write a brief (two pages) paper on Soviet efforts to combat alcoholism. Why is it a problem, how is the government trying to reduce it, are government programs working? 7. Write a brief (two pages) paper on your options for running your own enterprise in Siberia, being a minor assistant in Moscow, and in being promoted to a senior assistant in your hometown (where you now live) in a rural area of the Ukraine. Describe the advantages and disadvantages of each position based on associated privileges, housing, cultural, and consumer products available, weather, etc. Based on these factors, make a career choice. 8. Skit- an American high school student comparing after school activities with a Soviet high school student. 9. Graph- Make a balance sheet of income and expenses for a Soviet couple eligible for retirement. Decide whether the couple can afford to retire yet. Assume that the man's current income is 200 rubles per month and the woman's is 150 rubles. They will receive 40% of their income as a pension. Rent is 40 rubles. Plan a budget.

The Indiana University Russian & East European Institute has available for free loan a 60 minute 1/2" VHS videotape titled "Video from Russia–Pictures of Russia." The film features a blend of history, culture, religion and the arts in an effort to convey the character of the Russian people. Interviews touch upon the fears of war and invasion, community spirit and the need of rituals. Produced by Danmarks Radio, 1988.

The following price comparisons were informally compiled by American participants in the "Info USA" exhibit which toured the Soviet Union in 1987. The exhibit featured common American communication items such as photo-duplicating machines, personal computers, grocery price scanning devices and family cars. Sponsored by the United States Information Agency, exhibit guides responded to many questions from Soviets such as "How long does it take an average American worker to earn enough to buy a Plymouth Voyager?" Indiana University doctoral student Brigit Farley worked at the exhibit nine months and provided us with the following tables.

PRICE COMPARISON OF AMERICAN AND SOVIET EVERYDAY ITEMS

					-- After Taxes--	
Everyday Items	Soviet (rubles)	197 r. % Avg. Income	80 r. % Min. Income	American (dollars)	$1200 % Avg. Income	$584 % Min. Income
Metro	0.05	0.03	0.06	0.80	0.07	0.14
Rent	15.00	7.61	18.75	300.00	25.00	51.37
Dry Cleaning	0.19	0.10	0.24	1.50	0.13	0.26
Ice Cream	0.20	0.10	0.25	1.00	0.08	0.17
Man's Suit	150.00	76.14	187.50	400.00	33.33	68.49
Woman's Dress	120.00	60.91	150.00	200.00	16.67	34.25
Gas per litre	0.40	0.20	0.50	0.25	0.02	0.04
Typical car	7500.00	3807.11	9375.00	8000.00	666.67	1369.86
Good car	15000.00	7614.21	18750.00	30000.00	2500.00	5136.99
Movie ticket	0.50	0.25	0.63	5.00	0.42	0.86
Theatre	2.50	1.27	3.13	30.00	2.50	5.14
Books	3.00	1.52	3.75	12.00	1.00	2.05
Record Album	2.50	1.27	3.13	11.00	0.92	1.88
Cassette/radio	200.00	101.52	250.00	200.00	16.67	34.25
TOTAL	22794.34	11570.73	28492.93	38961.55	3246.80	6671.50

PRICE COMPARISON OF US AND SOVIET FOOD BY AFTER-RENT-AND-TAXES MONTHLY INCOME

	Per Kilo or Liter				
Food Type	Soviet (rubles)	% Avg. Income	American (dollars)	% Avg. Income	
Milk	0.30	0.16	0.60	0.06	
Cheese	3.00	1.65	4.40	0.45	
Flour	0.46	0.25	0.88	0.09	
Apple Juice	0.60	0.33	1.00	0.10	
Jam	1.00	0.55	4.00	0.41	
Macaroni	0.40	0.22	2.20	0.23	
Sausage	2.50	1.37	10.00	1.03	
Eggs	0.90	0.49	0.79	0.08	per 10 eggs
Wine	3.00	1.65	7.00	0.72	
Pepsi	0.45	0.25	0.50	0.05	
Bread	0.20	0.11	1.00	0.10	
Sugar	1.00	0.55	1.30	0.13	
Meat	2.00	1.10	5.00	0.51	
Chicken	2.00	1.10	3.00	0.31	
Tomatoes	1.00	0.55	1.20	0.12	
Oranges	2.00	1.10	1.00	0.10	in season
Bananas	2.00	1.10	0.50	0.05	in season

------------------------- GOVERNMENT AND COMMUNIST PARTY -------------------------

The Communist Party is not the formal governing organ of the USSR. The party and the government have a roughly parallel structure. The government controls industry, education and other such dealings from the center.

Party members make up only 6-10% of the total population. The numbers are deliberately small; party membership is a privilege. However, as expressed by an Intourist guide last summer "being a party member only entitles you to work harder..." It is true that membership in the party involves a significant time commitment, but there are advantages. Job promotion often accompanies membership. Members can gain better position on waiting lists for cars, new housing and other scarce commodities. Virtually all posts of political responsibility are held by Party members.

People in responsible positions have the best chance at gaining membership. However, workers and collective farmers do make up a certain part of the cadre. Recent changes in party rules allow Komsomol members to become members of the party in their late teens. The usual age to join is around 26. Men outnumber women, and ethnic Russians make up much more than half the total membership. (The Politburo is also made up mostly of Russians.) All Union Party Congress business is conducted in Russian. The most powerful members of the party are those who hold jobs within the party itself rather than outside.

Exercises: 1. Graph- Make a flow chart of government in the Soviet Union. Make another chart for the Communist Party. 2. Discuss topics which are covered at Party meetings. Plan your own meeting and play the parts of leaders and regular members. (Example- Komsomol meeting to discuss issues such as school cleanliness, behavior of students, grades of members and others, etc.)

The Indiana University Russian & East European Institute has available for free loan a 60 minute 1/2" VHS videotape and teacher's guide, "CLOSE UP Special Focus: US-Soviet Relations."

CENTRALLY PLANNED ECONOMY

The 1, 5, 10, 15, and 20 Year Plans set specific goals which affect every Soviet citizen. The plans determine what to produce, how much to make, and where it goes. Undeniably, this is a cumbersome process which does not respond quickly to demand. Communication in advance of the announcement of each plan is vital, but isn't always efficient. It is a difficult process to connect all the factors affecting each product. For example, to manufacture appliances, a prediction must be made as to the number needed and when and where they will be needed. The style and color must be determined as well as how to deliver the product. The number of each part required for assembly of the appliance must be determined and manufacturing plants for each of the parts must be selected. In turn, the quantity of raw materials needed by each parts manufacturer, along with delivery times for the materials, must be determined. The next problem is determining where the raw materials will come from, how they will be transported and when, and ultimately how to get all the parts to the appliance assembly plant. All of this must be worked up so that all the different participants can coordinate all the other demands made on them by other companies, and can develop a regular job schedule for their workers. It's no wonder the system bogs down and cannot respond to consumer demand.

Even such things as the focus of faculty and student research in institutions of higher education must be planned to some extent to ensure that funding and facilities will be available.

Exercises: 1. You are a central planner in Moscow responsible for output of one million sugar cookies per year. Make a list of ingredients you will need (estimate amounts). Decide how many cookies will be produced per month at each of five bakeries. Assign deliveries to the Moscow egg factory, the Zagorsk flour mill, and so on. Determine the amounts of ingredients to be delivered each month to each bakery. a. Skit- A director of a bakery has not received his flour delivery for the month. Have him or her talk to the flour mill director about speeding up deliveries. Use bribes, threats, etc., maybe the black market. The director should explain to the central planners why he can't produce that month's quota of cookies.

The Indiana University Russian & East European Institute has available for free loan a 15 minute 1/2" VHS videotape on the Soviet Union titled GLOBAL GEOGRAPHY: "Why Does Planning Occur?" The tape was produced by the Indiana Department of Education, 1988.

RELIGION

The Soviet government nationalized the Russian Orthodox Church after coming to power in 1917. As the government hardened its stance against elements of tsarist society, the church was forced to go underground. Later, during WWII, in a general return to ideas of Russian nationalism, Stalin called on the church to help support the Soviet government, and as a result the Orthodox Church was somewhat strengthened. The official government stand is to promote aethism and the government makes it awkward to be open about religion in most parts of the country. The churches, temples, and mosques which are open are often not repaired and are frequently difficult to reach. Some structures have been turned into museums, making them unavailable for religious use.

Most of those who attend services in the heartland of the Soviet Union are women, and most are older. The borderlands of the Soviet Union could be called a "Bible Belt." In these regions, religion is stronger, with devout Muslims in Central Asia and Christians in the southwest.

There are only 200 mosques for the 10 million Muslims in the USSR and there is a scarcity of Korans (also true of bibles). The government may print the Koran in Arabic (supposedly to preserve its purity) rather than in Russian or other languages of the Muslim republics, making it unreadable by most of the Soviet Muslim population.

Jews in the Soviet Union are a recognized nationality. Jews are given less access to higher education and career promotions than other groups. There are restrictions on Hebrew publications and on the production and distribution of Kosher food. Emigration is considered an act of disloyality, so applicants for exit visas (and their families) may be punished, as are would-be employers of these people.

There is a big difference in numbers between those who actively practice a religion in the USSR and those in Eastern Europe.

Exercises: 1. Simulate conversation between a grandmother, her daughter, and her granddaughter. The grandmother and granddaughter feel openly practicing their religion is risky due to Party considerations. 2. Short paper- Describe the relationship between the church leadership and the government leadership. 3. Short paper- Describe the Russian Orthodox Church: what is a service like, what is the difference between Russian Orthodoxy, Roman Catholicism, and Protestantism? 4. Map- Draw a map showing what religions are practiced in different areas. Draw another describing where religion is a prominent part of people's lives.

The Indiana University Russian & East European Institute has available for free loan a carousel slide program titled "Russian Icons: A Cultural Heritage."

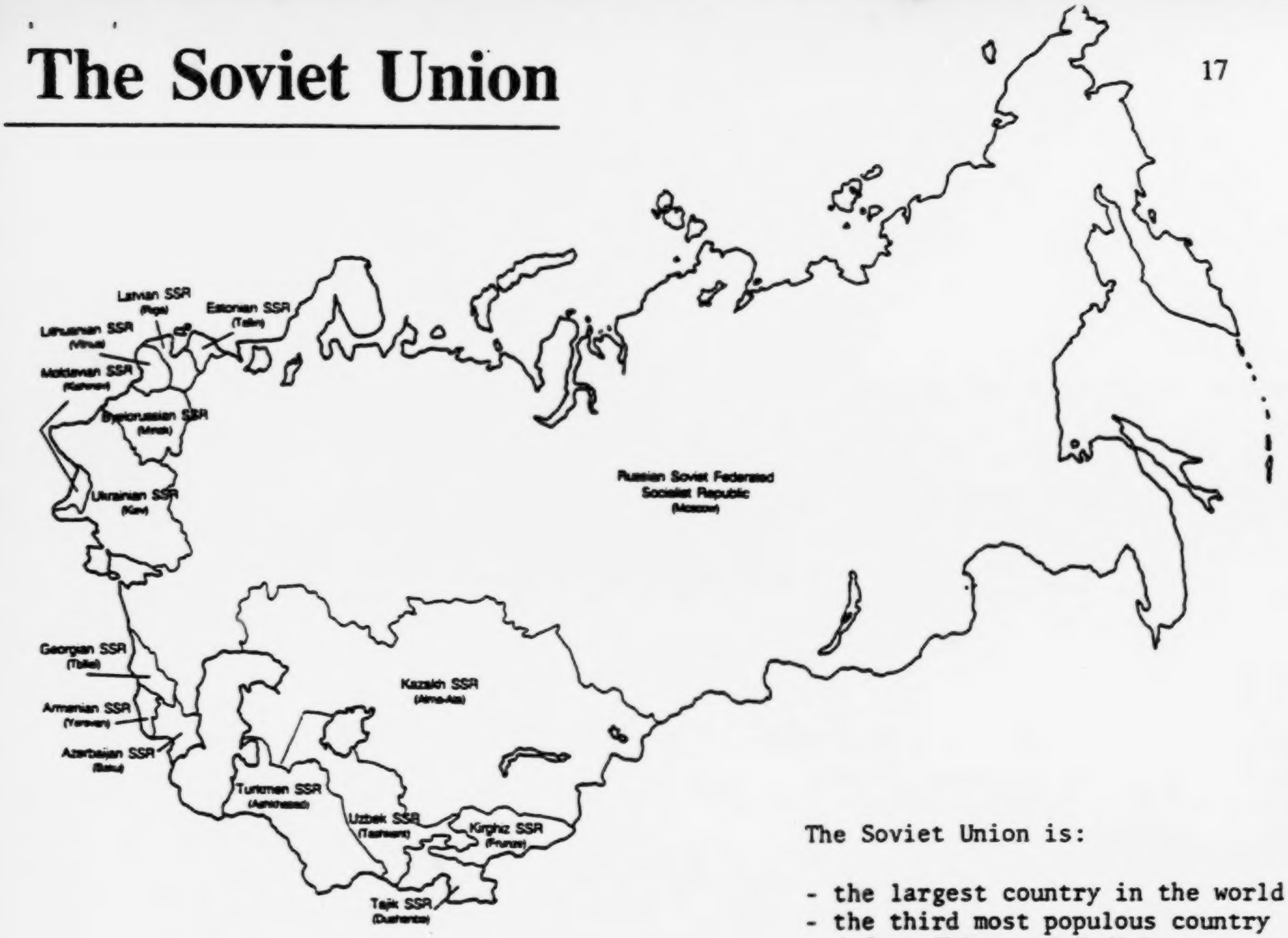
CHRONOLOGY OF SOVIET HISTORY

1905	Revolution. Establishment of "Constitutional Monarchy."
1914	World War I begins.
1917	February Revolution. Provisional Government Established. October, Socialist (Bolshevik) Revolution. The Soviet Russian government published the secret treaties of the World War I allies.
1918	Peace of Brest-Litovsk. Russia leaves the war. Seat of the Soviet government was moved from Petrograd (Leningrad) to Moscow. American, French and British forces seized Arkhangelsk.
1919	June. The Versailles Treaty ended World War I hostilities.
1921	Kronstadt Uprising. The New Economic Policy was introduced.
1922	Union of Soviet Socialist established. Constitution promulgated.
1924	Death of Lenin.
1925-29	Power struggle between Trotsky and Stalin. Stalin at top by 1930.
1928-33	First 5-Year-Plan. Declared a success by 1932 (the fourth year).
1929-33	Collectivization drive.
1933	United States and Soviet Union established diplomatic relations.
1934	Assasination of Kirov, local Party leader in Leningrad.
1937-39	"The Great Purge."
1939	Soviets concluded non-aggression pact with Nazi Germany. Soviets and Germans divide Poland between themselves.
1939-40	"Winter War" against Finland.
1941	June 22 Germans attack USSR.
1941-45	"The Great Patriotic War."
1941-44	Blockade of Leningrad. Deportations of non-Russian nationalities away from the western front.
1945	Yalta Agreement on the liberation of Europe signed by Franklin D. Roosevelt, Iosif Stalin, and Winston Churchill.
1946	Fall of Czech government coalition. All East European governments under Communist control.
1949	First Soviet atomic bomb explosion.
1952	U.S. hydrogen bomb test.
1953	Soviet hydrogen bomb test. March 5 Stalin's death.
1953-56	Power struggle between Malenkov, Molotov, and Khrushchev. Khrushchev comes out on top.
1956	Rebellion in Hungary put down by Soviet troops. February. Khrushchev's "Secret Speech" at the 20th Party Congress. The beginning of "De-Stalinization."

1957	October, Sputnik launched.
1959	Eisenhower and Khrushchev met at Camp David.
1960	Eisenhower and Khrushchev met in Paris. The U-2 incident brought a premature end to the meeting.
1961	Kennedy and Khrushchev met in Vienna. First man (Soviet) in space.
1962	Cuban Missile Crisis.
1963	First woman (Soviet) in space.
1964	Khrushchev removed from power. Brezhnev and Kosygin rise to top.
1968	Soviet tanks enter Prague, Czechoslovakia.
1973	Brezhnev visited U.S.
1974	Nixon visited U.S.S.R.
1975	Ford and Brezhnev met and signed the Helsinki Accords.
1977	Brezhnev holds Party General Secretary post and Chairmanship of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet. First time position of leadership of both the Party and the government held by the same person.
1979	Soviet invasion of Afghanistan.
1983	Death of Brezhnev. Andropov becomes General Secretary of the Party.
1984	Death of Andropov. Chernenko becomes General Secretary of the Party.
1985	Death of Chernenko. Gorbachev becomes General Secretary of the Party. Reagan-Gorbachev Summit meeting in Geneva.
1986	Chernobyl nuclear disaster. Reagan-Gorbachev "mini-summit" in Reykjavyk, Iceland.
1987	Release of large numbers of political prisoners. Boris Yeltsin, former protege of Gorbachev, ousted from the Politburo. Reagan-Gorbachev Summit in Washington, D.C. Signing of Intermediate Nuclear Force Treaty.
1988	Reagan-Gorbachev Summit in Moscow. Gorbachev becomes Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet. Shake up in Politburo. Anatoly Dobrynin, former Ambassador to the US and Central Committee Secretray in charge of foreign relations, Mikhail Solomenstev, Chairman of the Party Control Committee, and President Andrei Gromyko are retired from the Politburo. Also Yegor Ligachev, #2 man in the Politburo is stripped of his ideological post and seemingly demoted to a Central Committee agricultural post. Gorbachev speaks to General Assembly, United Nations and meets with Reagan and President-elect Bush. Earthquake in Armenia.
1989	Soviet troops withdrawn from Afghanistan. First contested elections held. Boris Yeltsin elected.

Chronology developed by Robin Bisha, Indiana University Russian & East European Institute. 1987.
Updated Spring 1989 by Sue Panek.

The Soviet Union


Latvian SSR
(Riga)
Estonian SSR
(Tallin)
Lithuanian SSR
(Vilnius)
Moldavian SSR
(Kishinev)
Byelorussian SSR
(Minsk)
Ukrainian SSR
(Kiev)
Russian Soviet Federated
Socialist Republic
(Moscow)
Georgian SSR
(Tbilisi)
Armenian SSR
(Yerevan)
Azerbaijan SSR
(Baku)
Kazakh SSR
(Alma-Ata)
Turkmen SSR
(Ashkhabad)
Uzbek SSR
(Tashkent)
Kirghiz SSR
(Frunze)
Tajik SSR
(Dushanbe)

The Soviet Union is:

- the largest country in the world
- the third most populous country (after China and India)
- the leading producer of petroleum, iron ore, coal, and wood

Government

Type: Communist state
Head of state: President Andrei Gromyko
Head of Communist Party: General Secretary Mikhail Gorbachev
Economic growth rate: 2%-3%
Administration: 15 union republics and 38 autonomous areas
Armed Forces: 5 million (in 1984)
Military spending: 12%-14% of central government spending

Population

Annual growth rate: 0.9%
Ethnic makeup: 52% Russian, 16% Ukrainian, 5% Uzbek, and nearly 100 other ethnic groups
Adult literacy rate: 99.8%
Religion: 18% Russian Orthodox, 9% Muslim, 3% other, 70% atheist

	USSR	US
Population	270 million	230 million
Area	8.6 million sq. miles	3.6 million sq. miles
% of arable land	11%	78%
Latitude	35°N - 80° N	20°N - 65°N (includes Alaska and Hawaii)

RUSSIAN ALPHABET

Soviets use the Cyrillic alphabet. Americans use the Latin alphabet.
Use this modified list to write your name.

Cyrillic letters	Latin transcription and pronunciation	
		CONSONANTS:
Б б	b	as in bat
Ч ч	ch	as in cheese
Д д	d	as in dog
Ф ф	f	as in fan
Г г	g	as in got
ДЖ	j	as in jam (a combination of Cyrillic consonants is required)
К к	k	as in sky (In Russian, k, p and t are pronounced without the puff of air Americans often use)
Х Х	kh	like the ch in German Bach or Scottish loch
Л л	l	as in long
М м	m	as in man
Н н	n	as in not
П п	p	as in span
Р р	r	as in ran, but rolled with tip of tongue
С с	s	as in sun
Ш ш	sh	as in shall
Щ щ	shh	is drawn out like the sh sound in fresh sheets
Т т	t	as in stay
Ц ц	ts	as in mats
В в	v	as in van
Й Й	y	as in yes
Ж ж	zh	as in azure
З з	z	as in zoo
		VOWELS:
А а	a	pronounced ah as in calm or uh as in fun
Э Э	eh	as in net
- ы	ï	No English equivalent. Something like the i in bit but with the tongue further back.
О о	oh	as in more or awl; not like o as in so. At the beginning of a word it is pronounced ah as in calm and sometimes it sounds like uh as in fun
У у	oo	as in loon, but short
Я Я	(y)ah	as in yacht; or (y)ih as in yip
Е е	(y)eh	as in yes; or (y)ih as in yip
И и	(y)ee	as in yeast
Ё ё	(y)oh	as in yore, but short like yawl
Ю Ю	(y)oo	as in yule

To write your name in Cyrillic letters, sound it out carefully and write down the corresponding Cyrillic letter for each sound.

Examples: Karen = K eh r eh n = КЭрЭн
Fred = F r eh d = ФрЭд
George = J oh r j = ДЖордж

USSR
WORD SEARCH

The following words are hidden in this puzzle. They may appear horizontally, vertically, diagonally, and/or backwards.

ANDROPOV
BREZHNEV
CCCP
CHERNOBYL
COMMUNISM
COMRADES
COSSACKS
GLASNOST
GORBACHEV
KIEV
KRUSHCHEV
LENIN
PERESTROIKA
(YOUNG) PIONEERS
RED SQUARE
SIBERIA
SPUTNIK
STALIN
TAIGA
TARTARS
TASS
TROIKA
TUNDRA
VODKA
WHITE NIGHTS
YALTA

```
Y A L T A B S T A L I N E L X
R A R D N U T T C Y I V E K V
E A N P I V K O L B A N U H R
D K A D E O S H K O I S O R C
S I V I R S R V O N E P T U O
Q O K I A O E T E R V U S S M
U R R C R N P O C E O T R H M
A T K H H E O O H H D N E C U
R S C Z O S L C V C K I E H N
E E E A G I A T O O A K N E I
X R N L E B P U A M O C O V S
B E A S R E I N Y R R S I I M
C P L O E R O D R Z T A P G T
C E G L D I M R F O O A D N A
C R H G L A S N O S T I R E S
P E W H I T E N I G H T S S S
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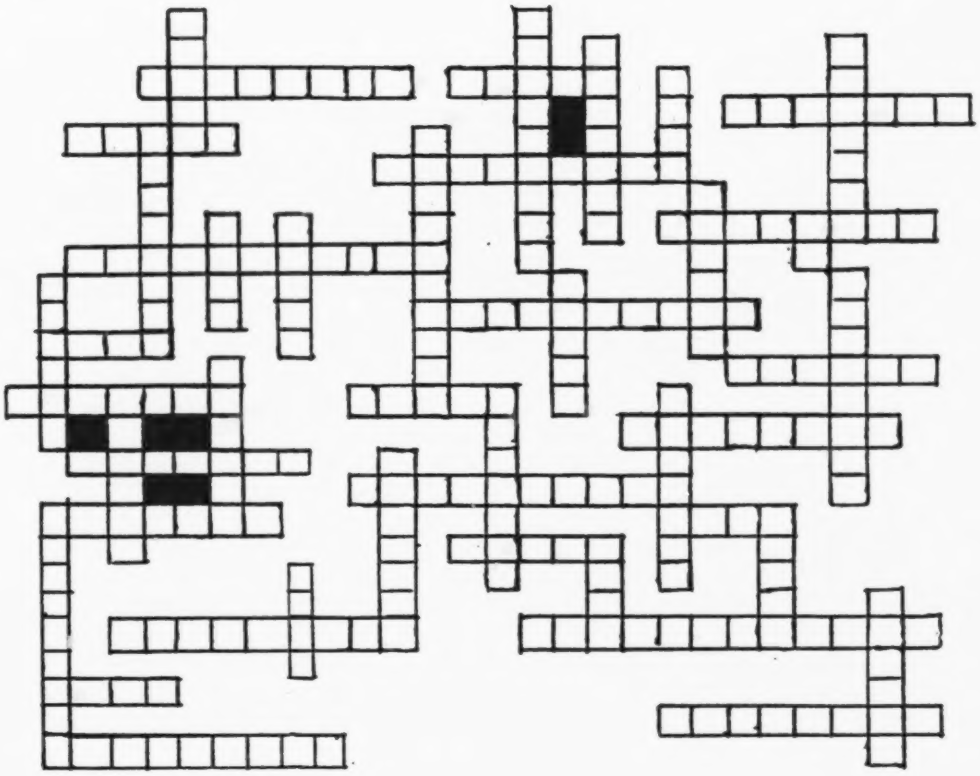
Indiana University
Russian & East European Institute

USSR
GEOGRAPHY PUZZLE

Fit the words into the grid.



2 letters
OB (River)

4 letters
AMUR (River)
BAKU
KIEV
LENA (River)
RIGA
TULA
URAL (Mts.)

5 letters
ALTAI (Mts.)
DVINA
GORKY
MINSK
NEMAN (River)
RSFSR
VOLGA (River)
YALTA

6 letters
BALTIC (Sea)
CRIMEA
LATVIA
MOSCOW
ODESSA
TBLISI

7 letters
BARENTS (Sea)
CASPIAN (Sea)
DNIEPER (River)
ESTONIA
GEORGIA
KHARKOV
SARATOV
YEREVAN
YENISEY (River)

8 letters
CHERSKIY (Range)
KIRGIZIA
MURMANSK
MOLDAVIA
NOVGOROD
TASHKENT

9 letters
CHERNOBYL
KARAGANDA
LENINGRAD
LITHUANIA
VOLGOGRAD

10 letters
BELORUSSIA
KAZAKHSTAN
SEVASTOPOL

11 letters
VLADIVOSTOK

12 letters
TURKMENISTAN

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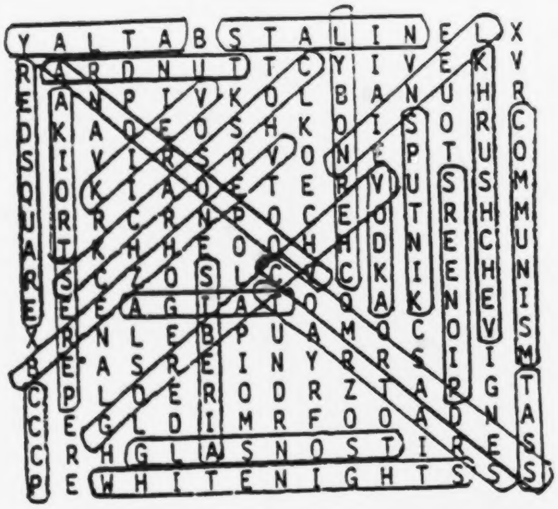
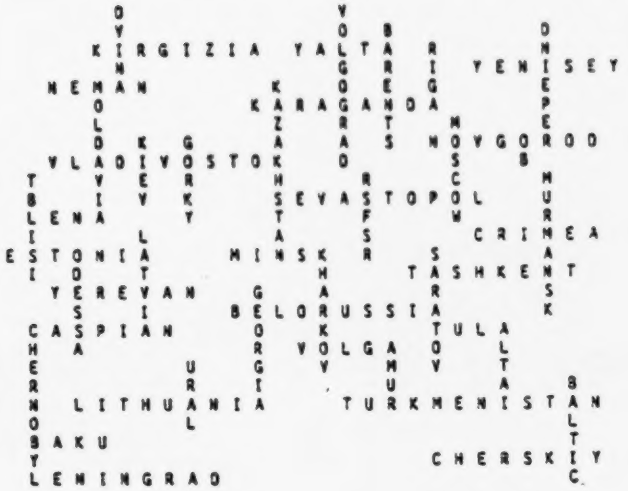
WORD SEARCH

SOLUTION



GEOGRAPHY PUZZLE

SOLUTION



EASTERN EUROPE

------------------------------ EASTERN EUROPE ------------------------------

What is Eastern Europe?
1) Map of Europe prior to 1917
2) Map of present day Eastern Europe

When examining Eastern Europe it is best to put current politics aside and look at Eastern Europe in a historical perspective. Eastern Europe is a very recent grouping of countries with varied historical pasts and traditions. There is no logical reason to title these countries as a single entity except that they represent the geographic area which came under Soviet control as the Red Army marched beyond its borders to defeat Hitler.

Eastern Europe cuts across the old frontiers of the Roman Empire (Roman road built to Black Sea, See Hugh Seton-Watson) and the more recent division between the Ottoman and Austro-Hungarian Empires. The East European states were not nation states until the latter half of the nineteenth century and early twentieth century. Bulgaria (1908), Romania (1878), Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Poland and Yugoslavia (1918), and Albania (1912). East Germany was carved out of modern Germany at the end of World War II. It is a highly diverse area geographically, ranging from East Germany and Poland which border the Baltic Sea to Romania and Bulgaria on the Black Sea to Yugoslavia and Albania which are on the crystal blue Adriatic.

"Eastern Europe" as we know it is a twentieth century term. A portion of the USSR actually covers the easternmost part of the European continent. Prior to 1945, the geographic area we now call Eastern Europe was referred to as East Central Europe and Southeastern Europe which included Greece. The Eastern Europe of today is composed of lands of two former empires, the Ottoman, and Habsburg. It is important to note that the traditions and histories of this region are drawn predominately from the West; the eastern influence is not from the Russians but from the Ottomans.

After World War I, the East European states gained independence with newly drawn borders and appeared to have parliamentary and democratic forms of government. With the exception of Czechoslovakia, all the states had become authoritarian systems by the end of the twenty-year interwar period. At the conclusion of WWII, the East European states lacked the stable and well-formed systems of government exhibited by their West European counterparts. This left a vacuum of power which enabled the communists to consolidate their power quickly. Contributing to this change was the acknowledgment by the United States and Great Britain of the Soviet Union's special interest in East European states as a defensive buffer zone protecting the Soviet Union from historical invasion routes from the West, as a nucleus for a bloc of allied states, as compensation for personnel losses of the Red Army in conquering the area, and as, at least for a short time, a zone exploited economically to reconstruct the Soviet Union. During WWII the Soviets established contact with local communists in those states and helped them to expand their influence in national politics. The communist ascendancy in East Europe was complete by 1948. By the end of the 1940's, communist controlled governments had promulgated new constitutions establishing a Soviet-style government called "people's democracy."

Exercises: 1) Have students get together in teams and make a map of an East European country. Include terrain, major cities, rivers, forests, major roads, RR, ports, languages of certain areas (i.e. In Yugoslavia, they speak four languages); 2) Make a list of famous people from each of the countries. For example: Poland--Mikołaj Kopernick (Copernicus), 1473-1543, established the theory that the Earth orbits the sun; Tadeusz Kościuszko, 1746-1817, fought in the American Revolution; Fryderyk Chopin, 1810-1849, composer; Józef Korzeniowski (Conrad), 1857-1924, wrote Lord Jim and other novels; Maria Skłodowska-Curie, 1867-1934, received Nobel prizes in 1903 and 1911 for radium research.

Since 1948, Yugoslavia has not been a part of the Soviet Bloc. Prior to this time Yugoslav Communist leader Joseph Broz Tito was able to keep Soviet influence to a minimum. The Red Army had helped to liberate Belgrade but Red Army troops did not remain in the country. The geographical distance between Belgrade and Moscow prevented Soviet military intervention when Tito began to take an independent stance in domestic and foreign policy. The Yugoslavs made overtures to Bulgaria for a south slav economic union, supplied money and arms to the Greek communists, and established a communist government more quickly than Stalin dictated. In 1948, Yugoslavia broke with the Soviet Union. Since then Yugoslavia has followed an independent foreign and domestic policy.

After the death of Stalin, external circumstances prompted the East European states to reexamine their governmental systems and make modifications to Soviet inspired policies. Contributing to the decision to change were:

1) The reconciliation between Moscow and Belgrade. Khrushchev wanted to bring Tito's Yugoslavia back under the communist wing. The rapproachment between the two communist states signaled to the other states that divergence within the Soviet model was possible.

2) Khrushchev's speech to the Twentieth Party Congress. The General Secetary spoke of the legitimacy of "separate roads to socialism," implying his countries willingness to tolerate some independence in policymaking by the other communist parties.

These changes had grave repercussions in both Poland and Hungary in 1956.

Research Project: Have students research the events of 1956 through old newspapers and periodicals (Time, Life, Newsweek).

After 1956, East European states still moved away from the Soviet-Stalinist model. The extent of the divergence varies significantly between states. Some countries are different from the Soviet economic model: Yugoslavia and its worker self management, Hungary and the New Economic Mechanism in the 1960's, and East Germany in the 1970's. Other countries attempted substantial divergence in the political sphere: Poland and Hungary in 1956, Czechoslovakia in 1968, and Poland in 1980-81. These attempts were less successful, largely because of Soviet opposition. Some countries, notably Rumania, Bulgaria, and Albania, have diverged minimally or not at all in the economic and political areas since the 1950's.

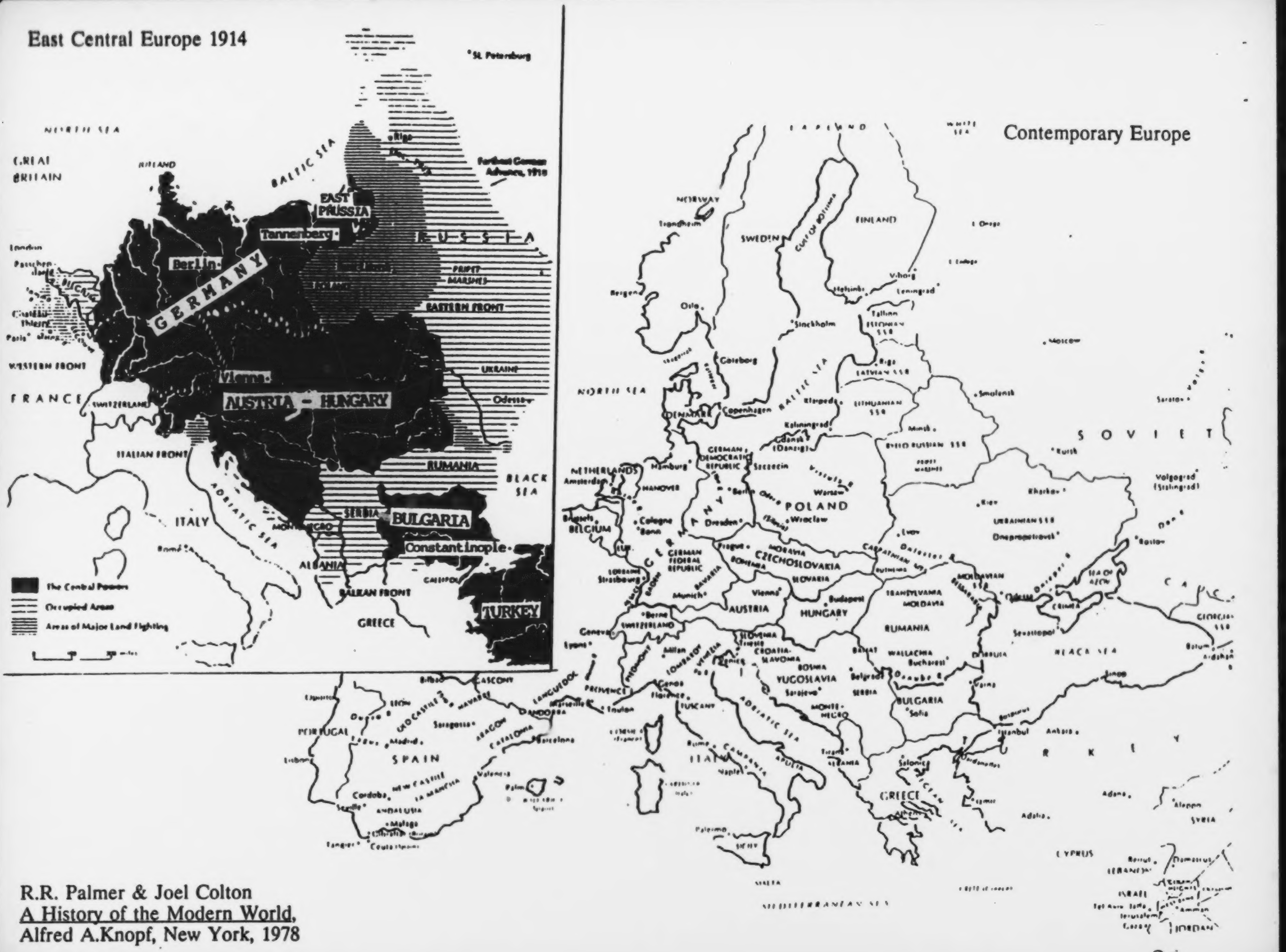
The Soviets have put limits on the scope of divergence. They seem to insist that all of the East European countries remain faithful to three principles of socialist development:

1) a monolithic dictatorship by the Communist party and the party's practice of democratic centralism.
2) Socialist control over the means of production.
3) The preservation of close ties to the Socialist community and the Soviet Union through membership in the Warsaw Pact and CMEA.

Despite a show of autonomy, most of the East European countries remain closely linked to the Soviet Union through the Council for Mutual Economic Assistance and the Warsaw Pact which is a military alliance.

In 1985, the Warsaw Pact members raised the issues of national sovereignty and non-interference. The East European governments wanted to renew the pact for a short period but the Soviets pressed and won a twenty year alliance. However, the East European governments did manage to communicate to the Kremlin their sensitivity to Soviet intrusiveness and their concern with autonomy in domestic and foreign policy making.

East Europe continues to look to the West. Western banks during the 1970's loaned substantial sums to these countries. The recession of the 1980's caused an economic crisis for many of the countries since debt payments to the West are major budget expenditures. There is an attempt on the part of these countries to alter economic dependency on the Soviet Union. The conclusion of many western experts is that East Europe must expand production and exportation of consumer goods in order to obtain hard currency. The countries feeling a budget pinch must undertake reforms toward more market-oriented economic structures to carry them away from the autharchic Soviet economic model. To achieve this, East Europe must look West and establish a new East-West detente.



East Central Europe 1914

St. Petersburg
NORTH SEA
GREAT BRITAIN
HOLLAND
BALTIC SEA
Riga
Farthest German Advance, 1918
EAST PRUSSIA
Tannenberg
RUSSIA
London
Passchendaele
Berlin
GERMANY
PRIPET MARSHES
EASTERN FRONT
Paris
WESTERN FRONT
Vienna
UKRAINE
FRANCE
SWITZERLAND
AUSTRIA - HUNGARY
Odessa
ITALIAN FRONT
RUMANIA
BLACK SEA
ITALY
ADRIATIC SEA
SERBIA
BULGARIA
MONTENEGRO
Rome
Constantinople
ALBANIA
GALLIPOLI
BALKAN FRONT
GREECE
TURKEY
▇ The Central Powers
☰ Occupied Areas
▤ Areas of Major Land Fighting

Contemporary Europe

LAPLAND
WHITE SEA
NORWAY
Trondheim
SWEDEN
GULF OF BOTHNIA
FINLAND
Bergen
Oslo
Stockholm
Helsinki
Viborg
Leningrad
Tallinn
ESTONIAN SSR
Moscow
Goteborg
Riga
LATVIAN SSR
Smolensk
NORTH SEA
DENMARK
Copenhagen
BALTIC SEA
LITHUANIAN SSR
Kaliningrad
Gdansk (Danzig)
Minsk
SOVIET
NETHERLANDS
Amsterdam
Hamburg
GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC
Szczecin
Berlin
Warsaw
POLAND
Wroclaw
Dresden
Kharkov
Volgograd (Stalingrad)
BELGIUM
Brussels
Cologne
Bonn
GERMAN FEDERAL REPUBLIC
Prague
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
SLOVAKIA
UKRAINIAN SSR
Dnepropetrovsk
Rostov
Strasbourg
Munich
Vienna
AUSTRIA
Budapest
HUNGARY
MOLDAVIAN SSR
Odessa
SEA OF AZOV
CRIMEA
Bern
SWITZERLAND
Geneva
Lyons
RUMANIA
Sevastopol
Milan
YUGOSLAVIA
Sarajevo
Belgrade
Bucharest
BLACK SEA
Batum
Bilbao
GASCONY
Marseilles
Toulon
Genoa
Florence
TUSCANY
ADRIATIC SEA
BULGARIA
Sofia
Istanbul
Ankara
PORTUGAL
SPAIN
Madrid
Saragossa
ARAGON
CATALONIA
Barcelona
ANDORRA
Rome
Naples
ALBANIA
Tirana
Salonica
TURKEY
Lisbon
Valencia
Cordoba
Seville
NEW CASTILE
LA MANCHA
ANDALUSIA
Malaga
Gibraltar
Tangier
Palma
SARDINIA
CORSICA
GREECE
Athens
Izmir
Adana
Aleppo
SYRIA
Palermo
SICILY
CYPRUS
Beirut
LEBANON
Damascus
ISRAEL
Tel Aviv
Jerusalem
Amman
JORDAN
MALTA
MEDITERRANEAN SEA

R.R. Palmer & Joel Colton

A History of the Modern World,

Alfred A.Knopf, New York, 1978

----------------- GOVERNMENT AND THE COMMUNIST PARTY -----------------------

East European countries have adopted many aspects of the governmental structure of their Soviet mentor, especially that the Communist party is the source of leadership and policymaking. The existence of other political groups in a national coalition-type organization does not compromise the dominant position of the Communist Party. This is a legacy of the coalition governments of immediate post-war Eastern Europe.

Party membership is kept within 6-12% of the population in each country in order to preserve the elitist character of the party. Current leaders are worried about the future the party since young East Europeans seem to demonstrate a lack of commitment to the party. So far officials have not succeeded in improving enrollment in party youth organizations. East European youths increasingly look to the West. In Poland and Czechoslovakia which have experienced the most recent turns against the system, disillusionment of the system prevails among the young.

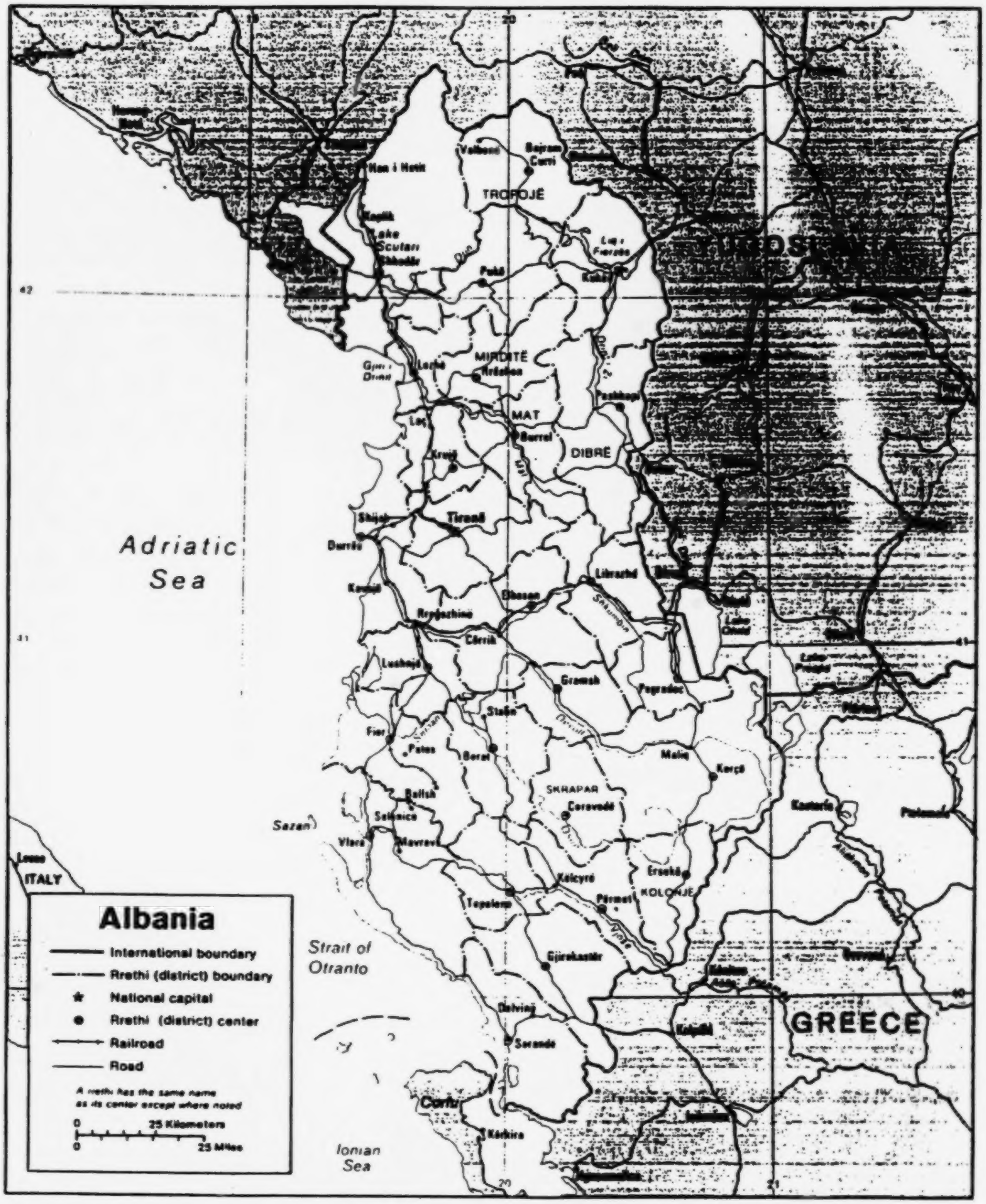
East European governments are highly centralized. Yugoslavia and Czechoslovakia have a federal type of administration organization. The heads of Czechoslovakia and Romania are presidents. Other states have a collective executive in the form of a state council. Policy-making and decision-making are closely linked to the party. Since 1974 the republic parties in Yugoslavia have been making many of the decisions for their own regions. This has been a source of friction within the League of Communists.

ECONOMY

After WWII, the East European states adopted the highly centralized Soviet economic model. The centrally planned economies call for comprehensive and national plans. These plans determine what to produce, how much to make, and where to distribute the products. The Stalinist economic model was to achieve socialism by means of state power equalizing the positions of the workers in relation to state owned means of production. A hierarchically organized state apparatus was established to accomplish this. The means to realize these goals were state ownership of property, central planning of production, administrative allocation of imputs, administrative rules, wages fixed by the state, an all-embracing state budget, consumption as a residual and the collectivization of agriculture.

The process is cumbersome and inefficient and some states--Yugoslavia, Hungary, Czechoslovakia, and East Germany--have attempted to modify the CPE in order to create more efficient and consumer oriented systems. In 1950 Yugoslavia developed a worker's self management system which put some of the decision making process in the hands of the workers. In principle, workers in each factory or enterprise became trustees of socially owned property.

ALBANIA


Albania
International boundary
Rrethi (district) boundary
National capital
Rrethi (district) center
Railroad
Road
A rrethi has the same name as its center except where noted
0 25 Kilometers
0 25 Miles
Adriatic Sea
Strait of Otranto
Ionian Sea
ITALY
GREECE
YUGOSLAVIA
Lake Scutari
Shkodër
Han i Hotit
Bajram Curri
TROPOJË
Pukë
Kukës
MIRDITË
Rrëshen
Lezhë
Laç
MAT
Burrel
DIBRË
Peshkopi
Krujë
Shijak
Tiranë
Durrës
Kavajë
Elbasan
Librazhd
Rrogozhinë
Cërrik
Lushnjë
Gramsh
Pogradec
Stalin
Fier
Patos
Berat
Maliq
Korçë
SKRAPAR
Çorovodë
Ballsh
Selenicë
Vlorë
Mavrovë
Sazan
Këlcyrë
Ersekë
KOLONJË
Përmet
Tepelenë
Gjirokastër
Delvinë
Sarandë
Corfu
Kastoria
Ioannina
20
21
42
41
40

Albania

Area: 28,748 sq km (11,100 sq km)
Population: 2.873 million
Capital: Tirane (.19 million)
Official Language: Albanian
Religion: formerly Islam
Per Capita GNP: US$840

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

I. History

The Albanians are descendants of the ancient Illyrians, one of the earliest inhabitants of the Balkans. They were conquered by a series of nations: the Romans, the Goths, the Bulgars, the Slavs, the Serbs, the Normans, and the Byzantines in succession. Their last overlord was the Ottoman Turks who Islamizied a vast majority of the previously pagan population. The Albanians were and still are divided into two district tribes: the Gegs and the Tosks. The Gegs are the northern tribe known as a flamboyant mountain people who carried on blood feuds for centuries. They are also twice as large as the Tosks, who are a less belligerent farming community living in the southern part of the country.

Albania became a state in 1912 after the first Balkan War. Political anarchy reigned until self-proclaimed King Zog, a northern Geg chief, took over. He and his followers were forced out of office in 1939 when Italy invaded and conquered Albania. The Communist Party was the group that filled the leadership vacuum in Albania chiefly because it maintained an organizational structure and expanded its membership. It led a anti-fascist popular front underground movement that in the Spring of 1944 started an offensive that drove out the already withdrawing Germans and the rival republican partisan movements. By 1946, all opponents to the government had been imprisioned or executed in war crimes trials.

A strong centralized state and a rigid ideological structure replaced the previously centrifugal tendencies. The leader of the party, Enver Hoxha, withstood three challenges to his leadership to 1956: eliminating the large group of Titoists who supported closer ties with revisionist Yugoslavia; the followers of Bedri Spahik and Tuk Jakova, advocates of destalinization; and the bureaucrats and military officers of the Tirana City Council. The Soviet Union's gradual destalinization process and the shift in emphasis this entailed in economic reform of the centrally planned economy resulted in a total break in relations with the USSR. The Albanian leadership wanted to continue the centralizing process to destroy the institutions that "hindered the nation's development" and to ensure Albania would not fall into "revisionist heresy."

The 1961 break was made possible with comprehensive Chinese support. The Chinese filled the gap when Soviet development aid was discontinued. They served as Albania's patrons for 17 years from 1961 to 1978 sending extensive aid as well as specialists and students to Albania. The Albanians followed Chinese historical trends starting a "cultural revolution" in 1966 by attacking the bureaucracy and the military to forestall a new class of middle class government officials. In the early 70s there was some "thaw", but this was ended in 1973 when Hoxha cracked down on youth, culture, and military technocrats whom he feared would stage a military coup. The mid-70s featured extensive leadership changes as Hoxha removed all individuals who might threaten him. This coincided with the break with China in 1978 chiefly over Chinese "revisionism" both domestically and abroad.

Albania in the last years has been totally isolated maintaining relations with few countries in the world. Hoxha became more and more paranoid as he dismissed and personally killed his loyal prime minister of 27 years Mehmet Shehu, in 1981. When Hoxha died in 1985, Ramiz Alia replaced him and Albania began to open up slowly to both the West and the East. The system itself, however, remains in essence Stalinist.

II. Government and Communist Party

The 1976 constitution named the Albanian Party of Labor as the "vanguard of the working class" and the sole leading force of state and society. Party organization is at district, city, village, and ward levels.

These levels elect delegates to the party congress. The congress however merely approves decisions made by the real decision-makers in the Politburo. The party is deeply involved in direction and control of every activity and institution in the political structure. The chief goal of the party is to ensure that there is no retreat from the Stalinist domestic, military and foreign policy of the government. The constitution stipulates that Marxism-Leninism is the official ideology, private property is abolished, the practice of religion and the acceptance of credits from the West is prohibited, and the stationing of foreign troops is banned as are any invitations allowing them to enter.

All other organizations serve merely as "transmission belts" conveying information to lower levels and implementing decisions made in the Politburo. This applies both to the Trade Union and youth organizations as well as the government itself. The government is led by the 250 member People's Assembly to which delegates are elected for four year terms. The Assembly however meets only twice a year in two to three day sessions approving legislative proposals submitted to it and ratifying government actions. The Assembly Presidium consisting of 15 members serves as the nation's legislature when the Assembly is not in session. The Council of Ministers is the government's leading executive and administrative authority and checks the implementation of party decisions.

III. Economic Conditions

The economy that the Communists took over in 1945 was devastated and underdeveloped. The goal of the communist government was to transform the homeland from a backward agrarian nation to a modern industrial state. To realize this, high priority was placed on self-sufficiency and immunity from foreign economic coercion. The rapid development of industry was decreed as well as the exploitation of natural resources such as oil, chrome, iron, copper, and hydropower. All industry was nationalized and agriculture was collectivized, thus eliminating all private property.

The economy sustained high growth until 1961, when Soviet aid was withdrawn. Growth picked up again in 1966 with Chinese aid. The 70s, however, were difficult times as growth slowed due to breakdowns in labor discipline and the inability to absorb aid. In the mid-70s, the cuts in Chinese aid resulted in permanent economic stagnation. This was chiefly seen in agriculture. As of 1967, all land was in the socialist sector and private plots were limited to 3/4 of an acre causing resentment in the countryside. This has resulted in unmet agricultural targets and some food shortages.

IV. Religion

Albania claims to be the only atheist country in the world. Religious observances are banned. However, estimates of the religious composition are: Muslim-70%, Albanian Orthodox-20%, and Roman Catholic and other-10%.

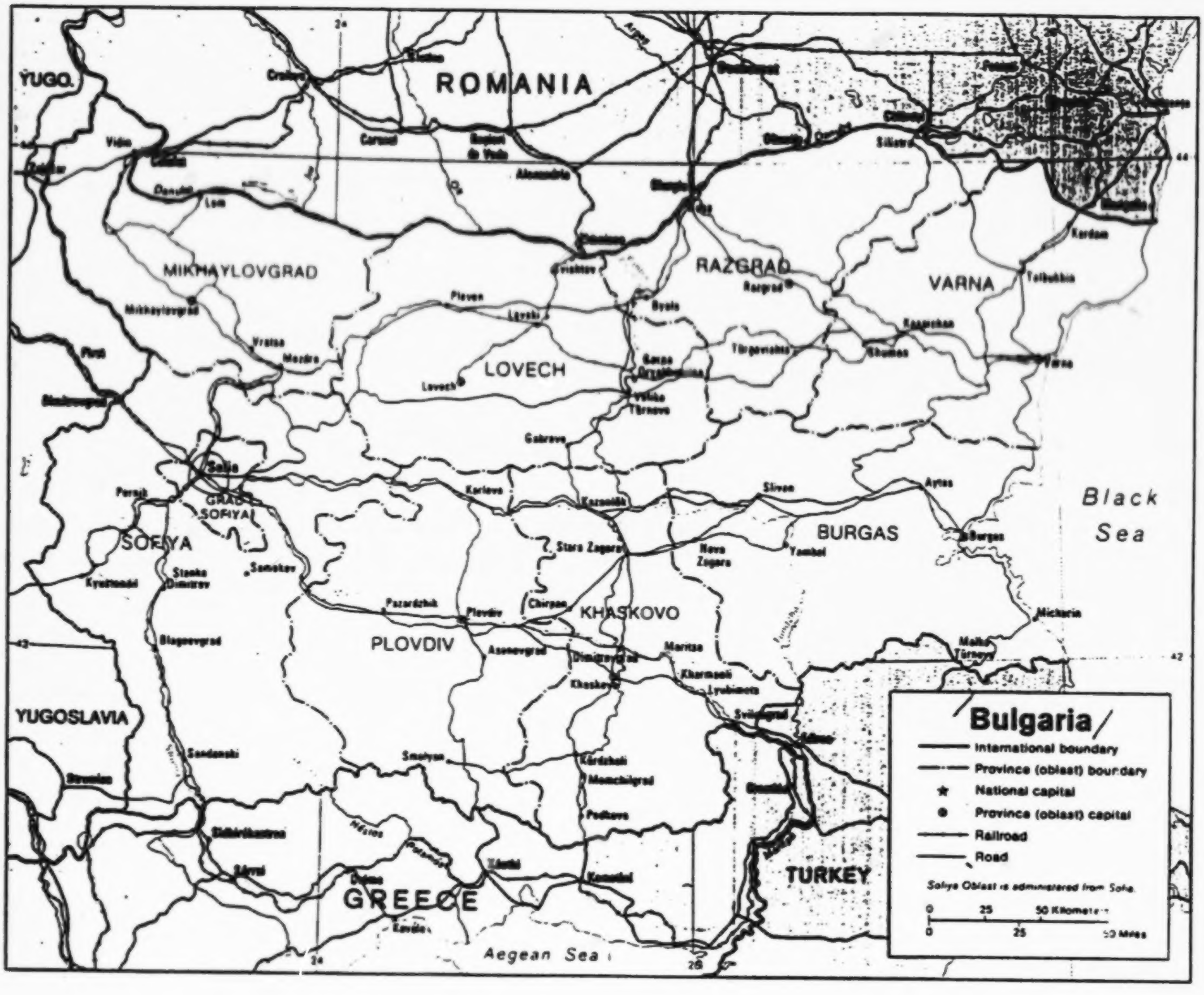
V. Albania in 1988

Albania continued to change in a number of ways in 1988. Its reputation as a blank spot on the map is slowly disappearing as delegates from Albania attended a series of Balkan conferences with delegates from Yugoslavia, Greece, and Bulgaria, relations with West Germany were accelerated with cultural exchanges and economic agreements, and relations with other east-bloc nations have been upgraded to embassy status. The economy continued to suffer from shortfalls in the food supply, which in turn has stimulated interest in Western aid to improve the economic situation. Even though domestically the Albanian leadership has rejected reform and Gorbachev's perestroika, more widespread criticism has become evident about cultural and economic aspects of life in Albania.

VI. Chronology

1300-750BC		Indo-European tribes settle on the Balkan Peninsula
1468		Conquered by Turks
1912-13		First Balkan War-revolt against Turks and independence
1925		Proclaimed a republic
1939		Occupied by Italy
1946	January	Republic proclaimed by Enver Hoxha
1949	December	Anti-Tito purges in Albania
1954	June	Party reorganized along Soviet lines
1959	July	Trade and Economic agreement signed with USSR
1961	February	4th Party Congress--rejects peaceful coexistence supporting China against USSR
	May	Sejka, leader of Pro-Soviet faction arrested
	October	USSR 22nd Party Congress denounces Albania; Albania leaves CMEA
	November	East European ambassadors withdrawn
	December	USSR breaks ties
1974	March	Widespread purges because of Hoxha's denunciation of superpower detente
	September	Defense Minister Ballaku executed
1976	April	Removal of Pro-Chinese leaders begins
1978	July	China ends all economic and technical aid
1982	November	USSR attempts to establish relations rebuffed
1985	January	Greek-Albanian economic agreement signed
	April	Hoxha dies; Ramiz Alia succeeds him

BULGARIA


YUGO.
ROMANIA
YUGOSLAVIA
GREECE
TURKEY
MIKHAYLOVGRAD
RAZGRAD
VARNA
LOVECH
SOFIYA
GRAD SOFIYA
BURGAS
KHASKOVO
PLOVDIV
Black Sea
Aegean Sea
Vidin
Lom
Mikhaylovgrad
Vratsa
Pleven
Lovech
Gabrovo
Veliko Tŭrnovo
Razgrad
Shumen
Varna
Tolbukhin
Silistra
Ruse
Sofia
Pernik
Kyustendil
Blagoevgrad
Sandanski
Samokov
Pazardzhik
Plovdiv
Asenovgrad
Karlovo
Kazanlŭk
Stara Zagora
Nova Zagora
Sliven
Yambol
Aytos
Burgas
Michurin
Malko Tŭrnovo
Dimitrovgrad
Khaskovo
Kŭrdzhali
Momchilgrad
Smolyan
Svilengrad
Edirne
Bulgaria
International boundary
Province (oblast) boundary
National capital
Province (oblast) capital
Railroad
Road
Sofiya Oblast is administered from Sofia.
0 25 50 Kilometers
0 25 50 Miles

Bulgaria

Area: 110,912 sq km (42,826 sq miles)
Population: 8.999 million
Capital: Sofia (1.032 million)
Official Language: Bulgarian
Religion : Eastern Orthodox (27%), Islam (7%)
Unit of Currency: Lev
Per Capita GNP: US$3690

I. Alphabet and Language

Bulgarian is written in Cyrillic, an alphabet almost identical to that used in Russian.

II. History

The Bulgarians are originally a Slavic people that migrated from the ancient Slavic homelands around the Vistula River towards the attractive glitter and tradition of Byzantium between 500 and 700AD. Between 800 and 1000, an Avar people named the Bulgars moved into the area conquering these Slavic tribes and molding them into the first Bulgarian Empire, stretching from the Black Sea to the Adriatic Sea. The first Bulgarian Empire reached its height under Czar Simeon, an ambitious Czar who coveted the crown of Byzantium for himself. After a brief period of competition with the Roman Catholic Church, Byzantium won the right to convert the Bulgarians to Christianity. In 1018, however, Byzantium ruler Basil II wiped out the Bulgarian army and conquered Bulgaria. It was not until the 12th century that the Bulgarians would rise up to establish their second kingdom. In 1330, the Serbs finally subdued the Bulgarians and forced them to become a vassal state.

The arrival of the Ottoman Turks in the area and their conquest of Bulgaria was at first not entirely bad as the Bulgarians were allowed to keep their Orthodox faith, paid only head-tax and a child-tribute. As the empire began to break down in the 17th and 18th Centuries, Phanarioties, or Greeks, who administered and ruled in the Ottoman Empire, increased their influence in Bulgaria, forbidding the Slavonic liturgy, propagating Greek culture through schools and monasteries, and maintaining a firm hold on economic life. This helped to foster a growing national awareness that eventually blossomed after Russian military assistance in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877-78 established the first state in the northern half of the country. Although the state annexed territory in 1885 and 1912, Bulgarians were never satisfied with the borders of the new state unless Bulgaria consisted of the "San Stefano" borders, named after the 1877 treaty that granted Bulgaria all of Macedonia, a hotly contested area of the Balkans that Bulgarians claim is populated by Bulgarians.

In World War I, the Bulgarians joined the Central Powers and attacked Serbia in order to realize this goal. After defeat in the war and the loss of Macedonia to a newly created Yugoslavia, the Agrarian Union, a peasant-middle class party, took over under the leadership of Alexander Stamboliski. His radical reforms of land ownership alienated the rural middle class and the military, who staged his overthrow in 1923. These middle class parties ruled Bulgaria throughout the Second World War, when Bulgaria entered the war on the side of the Axis to regain Macedonia.

The defeat of the Axis led directly to Soviet occupation and the rise of the Communist party in Bulgaria. The Bulgarian Communist Party had some popular support when they were the 2nd largest party in the 1920s. They also organized the Fatherland Front, a broad coalition of parties opposing the war which came to power after the Soviet occupation. After abolishing the monarchy and winning elections in 1947, opposition parties were eliminated within the coalition. The late forties and early fifties were characterized by the establisment of a centrally planned economy which nationalized industry, banks, and trade firms, the dismissals and trials of nationalists such as Traicho Kostov in 1949, and tolerance for the Bulgarian Orthodox Church in an attempt to link it to the state. The party was led by Vulko Chervenkov until the death of Stalin in 1953.

The destalinization campaign of the mid and late 1950s led directly to the rise of Todor Zhivkov, who to this day still rules Bulgaria. He initially emphasized light industry and food branches over heavy industry until 1962 when he eliminated his rivals in the Politburo. The purported military coup of 1965 by disgruntled military officers and political rivals convinced Zhivkov to drop all pretenses of economic or political reforms.

III. Government and Communist Party

The constitution of Bulgaria states that the leading force in Bulgarian society is the Bulgarian Communist Party. Nearly all political and economic decisions are made in the Secretariat and the Politburo which contain eight permanent and six alternate members each. These members are elected by the Central Committee which wields power between party congresses that meet two to six times a year to legitimize and publicize party policies. The party congress meets every five years and is selected from lower-level party organizations.

All other organizations exist to publicize and implement party policy decided in the Politburo. On the one hand, mass organizations, exist such as the Fatherland Front, as an umbrella for all other mass organizations and a vehicle for mass participation in politics and the Agrarian Union which acts as the other political party in the country and deal with agricultural questions. The goal of the government is likewise to implement the decisions of the Party. The State Council is the highest body of state administration exercising the functions of the National Assembly when it is not in session. The National Assembly is the supreme organ of state power meeting only a few times a year announcing, publicizing, and legitimizing decisions made elsewhere.

IV. Economic Conditions

The economy in Bulgaria has been organized essentially to achieve these tasks: the institution of centralized planning, the collectivization of agriculture, and the development of heavy industry. These tasks were established for an economy that had remained chiefly rural with 81.9% of the population engaged in agriculture in 1948. Since then, the majority of investments have been towards industry not related to agricultural production such as heavy industry, engineering, machine building, chemicals, and metallurgy. Thus, by the 1980s, industrial workers had become the main class. The urban population is now larger than the rural population and the country overall has a higher level of education.

The economic system, however, has been plagued by economic inefficiency. Most reform projects have centered on the need to eliminate waste and improve efficiency by holding firms financially accountable and reducing the level of bureaucracy. One such reform was the agro-industrial complexes of the 1970s which were to achieve horizontal integration of agricultural productive units, permit mechanization at a lower cost, and encourage specialization.

V. Religion

Accepting Christianity from Byzantium in the ninth century, the Bulgars have remained predominately Orthodox (85%). Muslims make up another 13%.

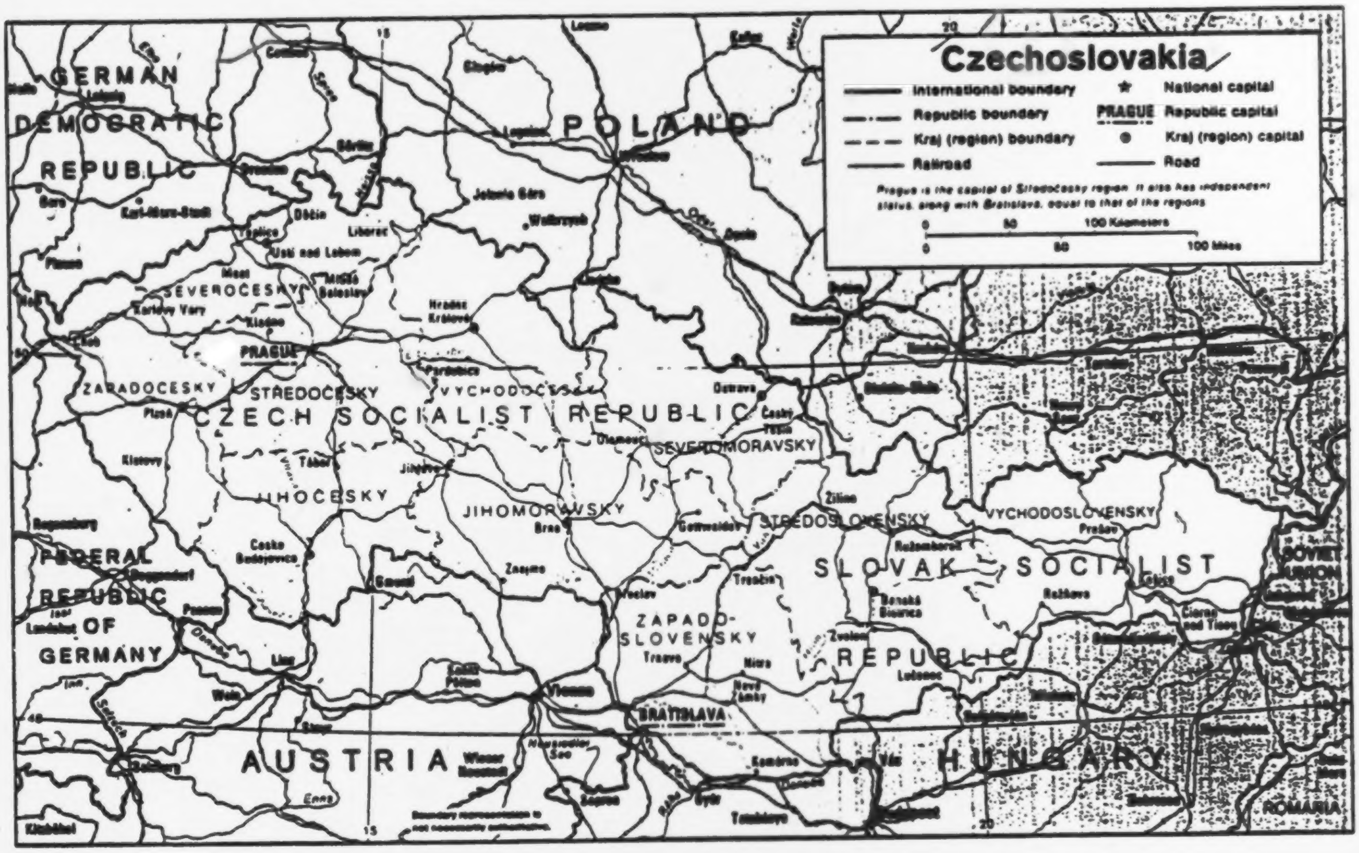
VI. Bulgaria in 1988

The reform program that was introduced in 1987 in Bulgaria under pressure from Gorbachev was supplemented by decisions and laws to create self-managing institutions and more liberal passport laws that were not legislated nor subjected to sufficient scrutiny. Major differences in opinion within the party emerged as reforms increasingly ran into opposition from middle-level bureaucrats. Zhivkov's position in the politburo, however, became firmer throughout the year as a series of dismissals eliminated any younger members advocating acceleration of the reforms. The economy is growing at a robust 6% annual rate, but this stems chiefly from increasing the level of credit borrowed from Western banks. Also, reforms of the price and tax systems as well as laws on private property and ownership were envisioned, but still not promulgated. Glasnost however has not yet reached Bulgaria as all independent or critical associations that formed were swiftly disbanded by the police.

VII. Chronology

500-700	Slavic Tribes migrate into Balkans
800-1000	First Bulgars take possession of land between Danube and Black Sea
865-70	Bulgarians converted to Christianity
893-927	"First" Bulgarian Kingdom stretches from Adriatic to Black Sea
1018	Basil II annexes Bulgaria to Byzantine Empire
12th Cent.	Bulgarians rise and establish Second Bulgarian Empire
1330	Bulgaria defeated by Serbia; becomes vassal state
1393	Bulgaria comes under Ottoman Rule
1877	First independent Bulgarian state established
1912/13	First Balkan War--Bulgaria joins coalition against Turkey reducing Turkish territory
1913	Second Balkan War--Bulgaria attacked by Serbia and Greece and later Romania and Turkey--loses much of gains of First Balkan War
1915	Bulgaria Enters WWI with Central Powers: attacks Serbia
1918	Bulgaria collapses at end of WWI losing territory to Greece, Yugoslavia
1946 March	Georgiev cabinet resigns
September	Monarchy rejected in plebiscite; People's republic proclaimed
October	Fatherland Front wins majority in Bulgarian National Assembly; Communist dominated cabinet under Georgi Dimitrov
1947 December	Soviets evacuate all forces
1948 December	Dimitrov enunciates "People's Democracy" Theory
1949 April	Kostov removed for national deviation
December	Kostov and nine others tried and hanged
1950 August	250,000 Turkish Moslems expelled
October	Dismissal of officials and cabinet begins
November	Soviet nationals granted same rights as Bulgarian citizens
1954	Zhivkov takes Secretariat, releases political prisoners; highest rate of collectivization in Eastern Europe
1956 February	Kostov rehabilitated posthumously
1957 February	1500 student sympathizers of Hungarian revolt expelled from University
July	Cabinet shakeups--advocates of close ties to Yugoslavia ousted
1959	Zhivkov puts forward plans for full collectivization of agriculture and decentralization of industry
1962 November	Zhivkov replaces Yugov, Chervekov groups from party in a dispute over destalinization
1963 May	Recentralization of industry and agriculture
1965 April	Plot against Zhivkov revealed by liberals in Central Committee and Sofia Military District
1969 March	Warnings against deviationism and Westernization by Zhivkov
August	Agreement with Turkey on repatriation of ethnic Turks
1975 November	Zhivkov visits FRG and signs trade and economic agreements
1980 June	Joint ventures with non-communist foreign enterprises permitted
1986	Helsinki Watch reports killings of ethnic Turks in Bulgaria
1987 May	Zhivkov pushes broad reforms, attacks party and proposes reduced role of government in economy

CZECHOSLOVAKIA


Czechoslovakia
International boundary
Republic boundary
Kraj (region) boundary
Railroad
National capital
PRAGUE Republic capital
Kraj (region) capital
Road
Prague is the capital of Stredočesky region. It also has independent status, along with Bratislava, equal to that of the regions
0 50 100 Kilometers
0 50 100 Miles
GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC
POLAND
FEDERAL REPUBLIC OF GERMANY
AUSTRIA
HUNGARY
SOVIET UNION
ROMANIA
CZECH SOCIALIST REPUBLIC
SLOVAK SOCIALIST REPUBLIC
SEVEROČESKY
ZAPADOČESKY
STREDOČESKY
VYCHODOČESKY
JIHOČESKY
JIHOMORAVSKY
SEVEROMORAVSKY
STREDOSLOVENSKY
VYCHODOSLOVENSKY
ZAPADOSLOVENSKY
PRAGUE
BRATISLAVA
Vienna
Karlovy Vary
Plzeň
Liberec
Ústí nad Labem
Hradec Králové
Pardubice
Ostrava
Olomouc
Brno
Jihlava
Tábor
České Budějovice
Žilina
Trenčín
Nitra
Prešov
Košice
Banská Bystrica
Zvolen
Trnava
Gottwaldov
Znojmo
Linz
Salzburg
Regensburg
Passau
Dresden
Wrocław
Opole
Katowice
Kraków
Budapest
Győr
Sopron
15
20

Czechoslovakia

Area: 127,869 sq km (49,373 sq miles)
Population: 15.556 million
Capital: Prauge (1.189 million)
Official Languages: Czech, Slovak
Religion: Roman Catholicism, Protestantism
Unit of Currency: Korina
Per Capita GNP: US$5290

I. Alphabet and Language

Czech and Slovak are similar but distinct Slavic languages that are both written in the Latin alphabet. Most letters in the Czech alphabet are pronounced as in English but there are variations. All vowels are pronounced long if provided with an accent; thus, á (almond or bar), é (area or care), í (easy or seem), ó (orchestra or door), ú (ouse or soup). Ý is pronounced like í. Other letters are as follows: a (Albert), c (Betsy or tidbits), č (charter or witch), ďe, ťe, ňe (Diego, Tientsin, Nyerere), e (set, end), g (game), ch (pronounced kh), i (ink, busy), j (Yank, pay), o (oscar, boss), ou (know, own), ř (pronounced roughly like the middle group of consonants in courgette, it is symbolized by rzh), s (salt, boss), š (shine or cushion), u (book), y (like the Czech i), ž (vision, pleasure)

II. History

Czechoslovakia is not a natural nation formation. It is actually the union of two Slavic peoples with similar but not identical languages: the Czechs and the Slovaks. These two nations' divergent historical origins shape their present societies. The Slavs originally settled in the area between the 1st and 6th Centuries. The Slovaks look to the Moravian empire as their ancient forbearers until the empire's demise in the 10th Century when the Hungarians conquered the area. From that time on the Slovaks lived as an agricultural people who did not emerge with a national identity until the end of the First World War. The Czechs on the other hand established the powerful Bohemian empire that survived until the 1300s. After the takeover by the Habsburg empire, Czech national identity reemerged in the form of Jan Huss whose proposals for church reforms ended in his conviction and execution on the charge of heresy. This led to a national Hussite revolt that was put down only at great expense by the Austrians. Czech national identity continued to be prevalent as Czech nobles chafed under Habsburg rule until they again revolted in 1618 starting the Thirty Years War. Their defeat at White Mountain is still seen as a tragedy for Czechoslovakia. Thus, both peoples enjoy a historical past.

In the mid-nineteenth century, the rise of a strong middle class, the absence of an indigenous nobility, and a democratic interpretation of Czech history contributed to the rise of a Czech identity. The period from 1891 to 1914 saw a blossoming of parties to serve the various special interests in Bohemia. The existence of these parties did not preclude the dominance of Austria in the political, economic, and cultural life of the region, however. The end of World War I and the collapse of the Habsburg empire signaled the beginning of Czechoslovakia. In an agreement in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, exiled Czech leaders concluded a pact with Slovak emigrants to create a federal state that would unite the two peoples. A parliamentary system existed in which no individual party could win a majority. Various coalitions were formed to rule the nation. The predominating issue in interwar Czechoslovakia was the nearly three million Germans and 700,000 Hungarians who lived in areas contiguous to their homelands. As the depression affected the economy, these minorities agitated for the right to succeed from the country. Also, the Slovaks bore a growing resentment against Czech cultural and administrative domination. The Munich Agreement of 1938 and the invasion of Czechoslovakia in March, 1939 administered the coup de grace to an independent Czechoslovakia and granted the Slovaks their own state.

The defeat of the Germans in 1945 led to the demise of this state. After the liberation of the country in 1945, the country was led by Edvard Beneš who hoped to cooperate with both the USSR and the West. During this period, the parliamentary system was reestablished under the Kosice Program which maintained a National Front in which all political parties participated. The waning popularity of the Communist party and the incessant pressure of the Soviets for a one party system precipitated a coup by the Communists which overthrew the system in 1948.

III. Government and Communist Party--recent history

Since 1948, Czechoslovakia has exemplified an extremely durable and virulent sort of Stalinism.

Immediately after the takeover, laws were passed to abolish the last vestiges of liberal democracy by reorganizing People's Councils as organs of local government revamping the judicial system and establishing a totalitarian state to serve the process of economic revolution by bringing about the complete socialization of industry, trade, and services. Government organizations operated as a "transmission belt," transmitting information to higher organs on which leaders made decisions and conferring orders down through the hierarchy. The national assembly held only brief, perfunctionary sessions with unanamous approval of all decisions. The cabinet was dominated by Politburo members, and political committees were established on a bureaucratic basis. Slovak autonomy, although guaranteed in the constitution, was severely limited and Slovak leaders were purged from the party. This period of Stalinism was best characterized by the revised 1960 constitution, which emulated the contemporary Soviet constitution and stated that Marxism-Leninism was the state ideology and that the leading role in society was held by the Communist Party.

From 1963 to 1968, Czechoslovak Stalinism underwent its most severe crisis to date due to a decline in economic growth, the rehabilitation of some of the victims of Stalinism, and the rise of Slovak nationalism. In January 1968, Novotny was replaced by Alexander Dubcek. This was the beginning of the "Prague Spring," which was an attempt by the Party to combine socialism with democracy and economic security with civil liberties. This was symbolized by the Action Program of 1968, which abolished censorship and reviewed the rehabilitation law, making it more liberal. Splits within the party and a seeming decline in the role of the party threatened hardline Stalinists both within the Czechoslovak party and in the Warsaw Pact, which resulted in the invasion of Czechoslovakia in August.

The seventies symbolized a return to the Soviet model of development with an emphasis on satisfying the material needs of the population. This included a continual crackdown on any dissidents who might challenge the regime and hope to reinstate the 1968 reforms. The hardline attitude of the Party was continued in 1986 when Milos Jakes was placed at the head of the Party. Although there was some talk of reorienting the economy towards consumer goods and decentralizing the administration, Czechoslovakia has continued its Stalinist system of development even in the Gorbachev era of liberalization and economic decentralization.

IV. Economic Conditions

Czechoslovakia is formed by 19 administrative regions averaging 5-6,000 sq. km each comprising a population of 5-600,000. Each region is further divided into 12-15 districts. Czechoslovakia's economic-geography is sharply divided by the contrast between the Czech and Slovak regions. The Czech region is dominated by industrial areas interspersed with rich agricultural farmland. The main areas are the Ostrava, Liberec-Hradec, and Krusne Mountains' subregions, the Prague and Moravian subregions, Plzen, and the Budejovice-Siblava subregion. These are based on high grade deposits of brown coal and clay and on heavy industry such as heavy machinery, automobiles, locomotives, armaments, and chemical products. Also, the Moravian plains are known for their rich soils producing grain and livestock with some dairy products. The Slovak areas, by contrast almost exclusively agricultural, are divided into two chief areas: the Danube region of grains, sugarbeets, and livestock with areas of specialized crops and the Eastern Slovak beef-cattle regions with developing hydroelectric industries.

From 1945 to 1960, the economic development of Czechoslovakia had been characterized by five distinct periods. The 1945-46 period saw a wave of nationalizations and the preparation for planning even though total industrial employment in the state sector was only 57.7% of the total and private industry still predominated in consumer goods and in domestic and foreign trade. The 1947-48 period was the period of reconstruction and a second wave of nationalizations, which made the state industry equal 96.4% of all industry, increased investment to 1/2 of national income, and shifted the industrial structure to heavy industry. The third period was characterized by the first five year plan from 1949 to 1953. Industrial output was increased 57% in order to establish heavy industry as the basis for socialism. Sharp imbalances emerged, however, as a result of the stress of industrialization, the reorganization of agriculture into collectives, and declines in industrial output. The fourth period from 1954-55 was characterized as the "new course" because of its higher priority for light industry and agriculture and limits to autarky. The fifth period from 1956-60 reestablished the priority of industry.

V. Education

The fundamental aim of education in socialist Czechoslovakia is to provide the state with a new generation whose aims, desires, and thinking are consistent with Communist political goals and whose skills correspond to the production targets of economic plans. Thus, it is to create an elite corps of administrators and managers to formulate and execute policy. In 1948, schools were brought into line with Marxist-Leninist ideology glorifying the USSR and vilifying the USA while campaigning against religion. The three concrete tasks for education were to 1) create a new intelligensia that accepts Marxism-Leninism unconditionally, 2) shift investment towards applied sciences, and 3) emphasize the class content of investment to favor communist officials, workers, and peasants. Education was made compulsory for ages 6-14 with kindergarten from 3-5 optional. A final secondary school exam is taken at 17. A second category is made for those who pass this test. Some are sent to senior secondary school from 15-17 while others receive selective vocational training from 15-18. The university system is controlled by the Party, which appoints rectors, deans, and, in some cases, professors. Control over the curricula is also firm.

VI. Religion

In the last few years there has been an increase in church attendance in eastern Slovakia, which is traditionally very religious. Despite anticlericalism policies of the Communist party, Czechoslovak youth show increasing interest in religion--perhaps because the church is one of the few non-Communist institutions available to them and a way to express hostility toward the government. Roman Catholic 77%, Protestant 20%.

VII. Czechoslovakia in 1988

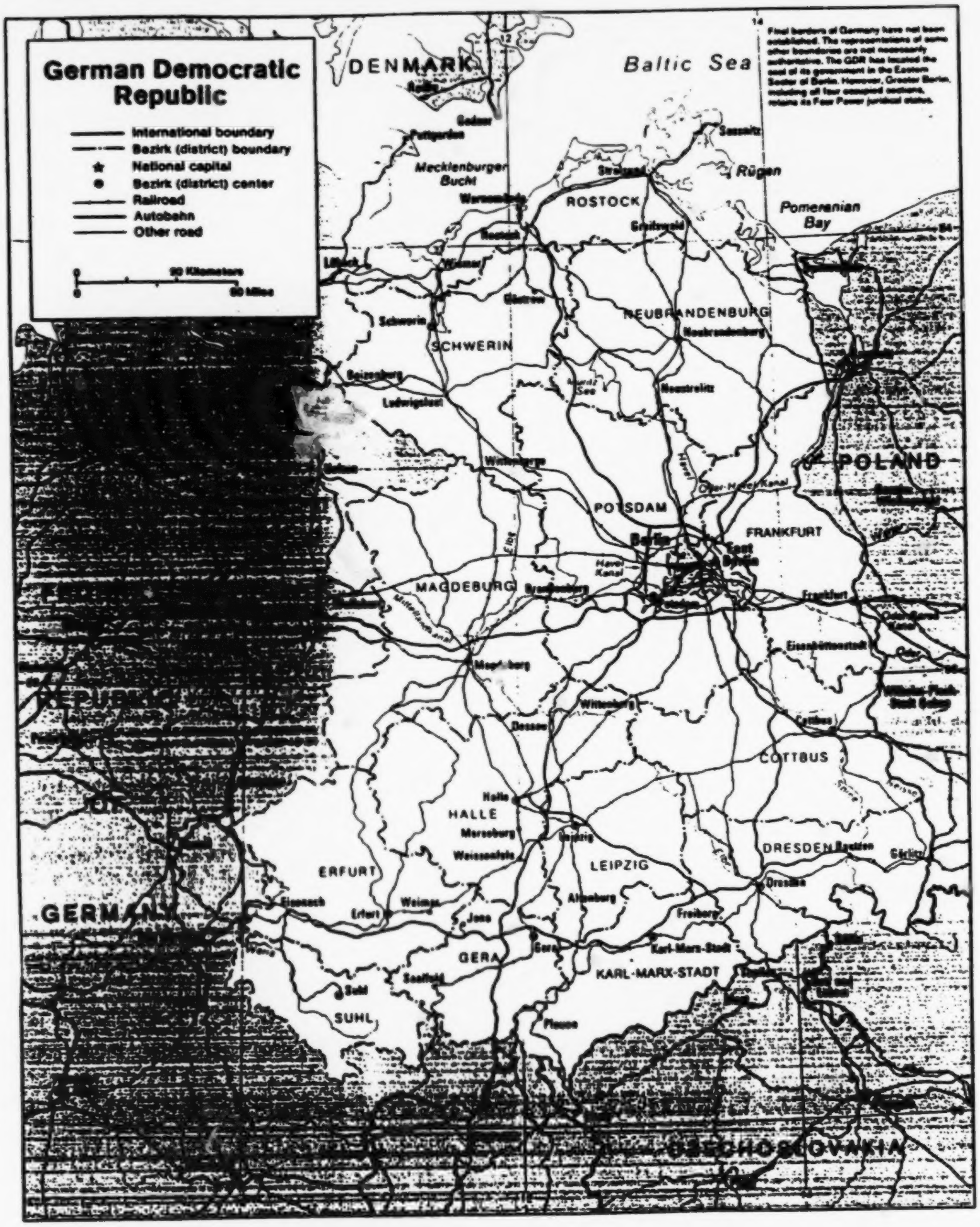
The succession of Milos Jakes as head of the Communist Party of Czechoslovakia in December of 1987 meant that 1988 was a year for him to consolidate his hold on power, by removing rivals and trying to create some consensus to a politburo sorely divided over the issue of reform. The continuing decline of the economy and reforms to improve its production have been separated from any political reforms in Czechoslovakia. The economy, however, with little foreign debt, ample consumer goods and some economic changes has not overtly affected the poor efficiency of enterprises and investment chiefly in heavy industry. The government however has continued the crackdown on illegal dissident publications and demonstrations as well as to reformist church and intellectual organizations.

VIII. Chronology

100-500AD		Slavs settle in Moravia and Bohemia
9th Century		Moravian Empire formed by Slavs in Bohemia
10th Century		Moravian State collapses under German and Magyar attacks: Comes under rule of Bohemia
1253-78		Bohemia reaches height under Premysl II extending from Oder to Atlantic
1310		Bohemian throne passes to Luxembourg house
1400-1415		Jan Hus advocates Church reforms; tried and burned
1415-34		Hussite religious and national movement leads to war between Hussites and Roman Catholic Germans
1618		Czech nobles again revolt against Habsburgs
1620		Defeated at Battle of White Mountain
18th Century		Social reforms and attempts to Germanize the population revive nationalism
1918		New state of Czechoslovakia formed
1918-38		State survives politically and economically but minority nationality issues pose problems
1938		Munich Pact forces surrender of Sudetenland to Germany
1939	March	Czech lands occupied by Germany; Slovakia becomes an independent state
1945	December	US and Soviet troops evacuate newly liberated Czechoslovakia
1946	May	Communist Party wins 36% of vote in election; becomes largest party in Czechoslovakia
	August	A new Slovak cabinet is formed with Husak at head
1947	July	Czech government accepts Marshall Plan; declines two days later due to Soviet pressure
1948	February	Czech ministers resign, Gottwald forms communist dominated cabinet
	March	Masaryk killed, nationalization of industry begins
	April	Social Democrats merge with Communist party
	May	Communist dominated National Front wins election, Benes resigns
1949	October	Widespread arrests: beginning of purge of "bourgeois elements"
1952	November	Slansky tried with 13 other Communist officials
1953	March	Food rationing begins as Gottwald warns of economic problems; Gottwald dies: government reorganized
	September	Reorganization: presidium abolished, ministries merged, new emphasis on production of consumer goods
1954	April	Husak arrested for Slovak separatism in wave of trials
1953	June	Clementis and Slansky rehabilitated and cleared of crimes
	September	Siroky and Stalinists removed by Novotny for political mistakes
1965	November	13th Party Congress admits serious errors in economic management
1967	June	Writers' congress criticizes regime
	December	Novotny dismissed by Presidium
1968	January	Dubcek replaces Novotny as head of party: beginning of Prague Spring--Warsaw Pact expresses concern
	April	Action program advocates political and economic reforms
	June	"Two Thousand Words" statement made by leading intellectuals
	July	USSR/Czech leaders sign accord at Cierna
	August	Warsaw Pact invasion: Dubcek reinstated after USSR fails to form a Czech government
	September	Brezhnev Doctrine asserts limited sovereignty and international obligations
	October	USSR-Czech agreement on stationing of troops

1969	January	2000 students protest issuing "Prague Manifesto" condemning Warsaw Pact intervention
	March	Husak replaces Dubcek: violent demonstrations result
	May	Resolution bans progressive weeklies asserting "democratic centralism"
	August	Three days of unrest, clashes on anniversary of Augsut 20th Warsaw Pact intervention
	September	Purge of reformers begins
1970	June	Dubcek expelled from Czech Communist Party
	December	Centralization measures reduce authority of Czech/Slovak regional governments
1972	July	Trials of 46 Dubcek supporters for subversive activity
1973	February	Amnesty for those who fled in 1968
1974	July	Powers of security forces extended overriding civil rights
	August	Works of 300 Czech writers banned from libraries
1977	January	"Charter 77" on non-observance of human rights published and signed by 240 Czechoslovak intellectuals
	March	Jan Patocka dies in hospital after police detention
1979	October	Charter 77 dissidents imprisoned
1986	May	17th Czech Party Congress resists Gorbachev prompting on reforms
	September	"The Jazz Section" arrested as part of a general crackdown on intellectuals
1987	January	State-owned companies gain greater autonomy
	February	Criticism of Gorbachev-style reforms
	March	Husak publically backs reforms
	April	Crowds cheer as Gorbachev goes to Czechoslovakia
	May	Jazz Section members sentenced
	December	Milos Jakes replaces Husak

EAST GERMANY


German Democratic Republic
International boundary
Bezirk (district) boundary
National capital
Bezirk (district) center
Railroad
Autobahn
Other road
90 Kilometers
60 Miles
DENMARK
Baltic Sea
Rügen
Pomeranian Bay
Mecklenburger Bucht
ROSTOCK
Rostock
Wismar
Stralsund
Greifswald
Schwerin
SCHWERIN
NEUBRANDENBURG
Neubrandenburg
Neustrelitz
POLAND
POTSDAM
Berlin
East Berlin
FRANKFURT
Frankfurt
Eisenhüttenstadt
MAGDEBURG
Magdeburg
Brandenburg
Wittenberg
Dessau
Cottbus
COTTBUS
Halle
HALLE
Merseburg
Weissenfels
Leipzig
LEIPZIG
DRESDEN
Dresden
Bautzen
Görlitz
ERFURT
Erfurt
Eisenach
Weimar
Jena
Gera
GERA
Altenburg
Freiberg
Karl-Marx-Stadt
KARL-MARX-STADT
Suhl
SUHL
Saalfeld
Plauen
GERMANY
CZECHOSLOVAKIA

East Germany

Area: 108,178 sq km (41,770 sq miles)
Population: 16.748 million
Capital: East Berlin (1.134 million)
Official Language: German
Religion: Protestantism, Roman Catholicism
Unit of Currency: Mark
Per Capita GNP: US$ 6430

I. History

The German Democratic Republic, better known as East Germany, is a product of the Second World War. Up to 1961, its fate was still uncertain chiefly because of the massive departure of the GDR's citizens to West Germany and Soviet peace proposals aimed at the neutralization and unification of Germany. The GDR was established on the heels of the Federal Republic of Germany (West Germany or the FRG) in 1949. The Communist Party quickly forced all opposition to move west and set up a typical stalinist government with a centrally planned economy. It established relations with the East European states and severed those remaining with the west. The FRG, at the same time promoted East German isolation by promoting the Hallstein Doctrine which stated that any government having diplomatic relations with the GDR could not maintain relations with Bonn. 1961 completed this isolation as the Berlin Wall was constructed preventing the exodus of the best and the brightest of East Germany.

The government of Walter Ulbricht recognized the popular resignation after the building of the Wall and the passiveness of the population due to the exile of the chief opposition parties. Ulbricht used this passivity to create the healthiest and most developed economy in Eastern Europe and achieve a high standard of living. New economic reforms, named the NES, succeeded in coopting the growing managerial and technical strata that made up the middle class offering them power, initiative, and authority as well as economic incentives.

1968 and the Prague Spring signaled the beginning of the end for East German isolation as detente and internal pressures combined to open up the GDR. West German chancellor Willy Brandt's desire to normalize relations with Eastern Europe caused a crisis in the East German leadership. Ulbricht's strident opposition to these relations resulted in his resignation and the rise of Erich Honecker. Honecker's policies resulted in two almost contradictory trends. On the one hand, the four power agreement guaranteed links between West Berlin and the FRG and allowed tourists to the GDR while the 1972 basic agreement between the FRG and the GDR caused the de facto recognition of the GDR by the FRG and even more contacts between the two nations. This blossoming relationship led to a somewhat more permissive atmosphere in East Germany as West German marks, travelers, and television were seen in the GDR. On the other hand, the party made a stand for more vigilance, more emphasis on "the class struggle", and on a rejection of all things Western. This policy derived chiefly from Honecker's still weak standing in the party especially in relation to hardliners.

The flourishing relationship between the two countries helped the GDR, especially economically. The new emphasis on consumer goods, housing, and living standards in East German plans were promoted by increasing West German trade and subsidization. The economic recessions of the 70s soon turned to the increasingly good economic performance of the 80s for the GDR. At the same time, however, the GDR's population has grown tired of the repressive measures of their government and flocked to the Evangelical Church which protected a growing peace and environmental movement. The Gorbachev years of perestroika and glasnost have only furthered this conflict as the Honecker government in the midst of relatively good economic times has refused to begin any reforms.

II. Government and Communist Party

The GDR is led by the Socialist Unity Party (SED) which is the leading force in society. Even though it is the main party in the state, it is by no means the only party. Four parties have been kept alive to transmit decisions made by the SED to its followers. Also, mass organizations exist in the GDR that are loosely integrated into the government as semilegislative and propaganda organs. All these organizations participate in the Volkskammer, the GDR's parliament on the basis of quotas that allow each organization to have representatives. The SED leadership, however, has complete veto power over all nominees. Thus, the SED has had control over both the government and other mass organizations. One unique characteristic that distinguishes the SED from the other parties in Eastern Europe is that it has nearly 13% of its population in the party, which is more than twice that of the USSR. Thus, the party has served both as an instrument of mobilization and of leadership.

III. Economy

The East German economy is a surprising paradox. Even though it has kept to a large degree the characteristics of a centrally planned economy (i.e. nationalization of the means of production, planned output of the economy, emphasis on heavy industry, and the collectivization of agriculture), it has not stagnated, but rather the economy has boomed. This is in part due to the flexible way the East German leadership has dealt with its economy. The initial imbalances and tensions that the introduction of the Stalinist method of production created in society resulted in riots throughout East Germany in 1953. Although these were put down by Soviet troops, new economic policies were needed to coopt the bright and talented managerial elites forced to remain in East Germany after the building of the Berlin Wall.

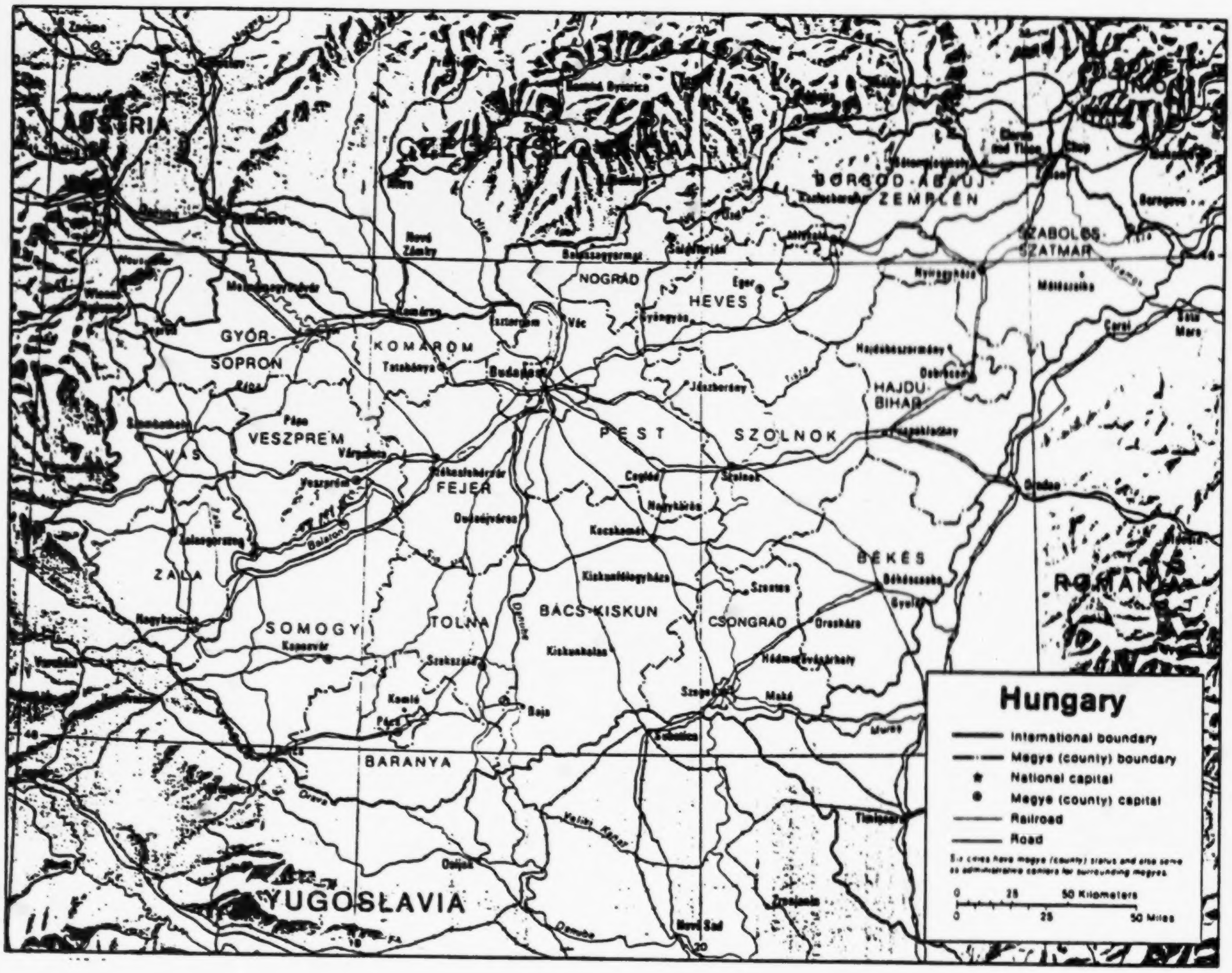
The first economic reforms were of an administrative nature attempting to improve the way the CPE worked rather than to change its essence.. The 1963 New Economic System of Planning and Management (NES) resulted in considerable decentralization and autonomy at the factory level, greater expertise in management, more attention to profitability, and a freer play in supply and demand. More reforms were implemented in 1967 to graft on to the NES the latest techniques of the technical revolution.

These reforms, however, were ended in 1970 because of the imbalances that concentrated investment and research on a few projects while neglecting others. Thus, the old system of production was introduced with a new stress on living standards, housing, and consumer goods. This new policy ran into some problems in the 70s chiefly because of the international oil crisis to which the GDR was particularly susceptible due to its extreme dependence on Soviet oil and the increasing debt to the west. This resulted in the policy changes of the 1981 SED party congress which emphasized an acceleration of scientific and technical progress, cutting the use of energy, gearing investment to modernize existing plants rather than to commission new ones, and raising labor productivity. To accomplish this, the leadership restructured the economy into Kombinats consisting of 20 to 40 factories of 75,000 employees each which were to incorporate research labs and make components and spare parts. This resulted in the further enfranchisement of the industrial elite as well as another economic boom. Problems still exist such as the labor intensive method of production, low capital productivity, inadequate application of technology, spiraling energy costs, and wasteful uses of material. But, the East German economy is still the powerhouse of Eastern Europe with a relatively unreformed Stalinist economy.

IV. Chronology

1949	April	GDR established under Walter Ulbricht
1950	June	Accepts expelled Sudeten Germans, Oder-Neisse border with Poland
	July	New constitution modeled on USSR's
		Christian Democrats and Liberal Democrats face mounting pressure
	September	"Espionage" expulsions of all opposition parties
1952	March	Parliament endorses proposal for reunification
	July	Ulbricht promulgates economic plan emphasizing heavy industry and administrative centralization
		Ties between East and West German churches severed
1953	June	Changes in working norms leads to riots in cities; suppressed by Soviets
1956	January	National People's Army established
1961	July	Ministries reorganized due to economic crisis
	August	Berlin Wall erected
1970	March	Brandt and Stoph meet to discuss normalization of FRG-GDR relations
	May	FRG recognized GDR
1971	May	Erich Honecker replaces Ulbricht as party head
1973	March	Permanent missions set up between FRG and GDR
1974	September	US establishes diplomatic relations
1984	September	Honecker postpones visit to FRG under Soviet pressure
1986	April	11th Party Congress: Gorbachev visits
1987	April	Honecker rejects emulation of Soviet reforms
	June	Three nights of clashes when youths gather near wall to hear outdoor concert in West Berlin
	July	Amnesty announced for 5000 political prisoners
	September	Honecker visits FRG

HUNGARY


AUSTRIA
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SZABOLCS-SZATMAR
NOGRAD
HEVES
GYOR-SOPRON
KOMAROM
Budapest
HAJDU-BIHAR
PEST
SZOLNOK
VAS
VESZPREM
FEJER
ZALA
BEKES
SOMOGY
TOLNA
BACS-KISKUN
CSONGRAD
BARANYA
Hungary
International boundary
Megye (county) boundary
National capital
Megye (county) capital
Railroad
Road
0 25 50 Kilometers
0 25 50 Miles

Hungary

Area: 93,030 sq km (35,921 sq miles)
Population: 10.85 million
Capital: Budapest (2.093 million)
Official Language: Magyar
Religion: Roman Catholicism (50%), Protestantism
Unit of Currency: Forint
Per Capita GNP: US$3850

I. Alphabet and Language

Hungarian, of the Finno-Urgraic language group--not slavic--has many double consonants and accented vowels. For example, jó éjszakát (goodnight); viszontlátásra (goodbye); köszönöm szépen (thank you very much).

II. History

The Hungarians are a Finno-Ugric people whose ancient homeland supposedly lies behind the Ural mountains. Around the birth of Christ, a loose conglomeration of tribes began a series of migrations that took them across the Russian steppe to the Danube basin that they now call home. After their arrival in 896, the Hungarians ravaged Europe for nearly a hundred years before they settled down as a feudal agricultural people, converted by Rome to Roman Catholicism, in the Danube basin. They developed a large empire in the basin that basically lasted until 1526 when they were overwhelmed by the Turks at the Battle of Mohács and Hungary was divided into three parts: Turkish occupied Hungary, the semi-autonomous state of Transylvania, and Royal Hungary ruled by the Austrian House of Habsburgs. After liberation from the Turks in 1699 and a failed revolution between 1701-11, the Hungarians chafed under Austrian rule. Another popular revolution in 1848-49 led by Lájos Kossuth led to a national tragedy when the Russians helped the Austrians overcome the resistance. The tacit recognition by the Austrians of their inability to prevent the Hungarians from eventually establishing their own state led to the Ausgleich of 1867 which gave the Hungarians autonomy in internal affairs. Chauvanistic Hungarian policies demanding that all peoples learn and speak Hungarian caused increasing difficulties in their domain chiefly because the empire now consisted of more national minorities than of Hungarians. This tension was especially evident in Transylvania and in Slovakia.

The end of the First World War led to the collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Empire and the Treaty of Trianon which divided those parts of historical Hungary that were predominantly populated by other nationalities into new nations: Romanians and Transylvania went to Romania, Slovaks and Slovakia to Czechoslovakia, and Serbs and Croats to the newly formed Yugoslavia. The Hungarians at first refused to accept this, launching a revolution led by Béla Kun, the leader of the Hungarian communists. However, repressive measures alienating all social classes and Allied discomfort with Communism led to his defeat and the 20 year reign of Admiral Miklos Horthy's fundamentally conservative government that was determined to maintain the semi-feudal social structure and reacquire Hungarian lands still populated by nearly two million Hungarians.

Although Hungary gained back these lands during World War II by siding with the Germans, it again lost them with the Communist takeover in 1945. Early Communist rule was characterized by party leader Mátyás Rákosi who gained unlimited power in the dismissal of "Titoists" following Tito's split from the Soviet bloc. This allowed Rákosi to eliminate his main rival for power, László Rájk, and other recalcitrant groups such as the veterans of 1919, indigenous Communist partisans, and left-wing socialists. Rákosi's rule emphasized official Marxist-Leninist doctrine, Soviet models, and the typical centrally planned economy. The death of Stalin caused the temporary downfall of Rákosi as Soviet leaders berated him for his personality cult and mismanagement of the economy. Imre Nagy, an agricultural expert who opposed collectivization, took over in 1953, but was prevented from implementing his policies because of bitter interparty struggles with Rákosi and his followers. This conflict developed into public debates within the framework of the so-called "Petőfi Circle." In October of 1956, student demonstrations erupted into armed clashes forcing the reinstatement of Nagy and massive reforms, including a pluralistic democratic system, a mixed economy, aid to individual farmers, the elimination of police terror, and the withdrawal of the country from the Warsaw Pact. This resulted in a Soviet invasion that ended the revolution and put Janos Kádár at the head of the party.

Kadar was to rule for the next thirty years. Initially he resorted to totalitarian methods of rule to repress a nationwide workers' strike. Later, policies changed at the 1962 Eighth Party Congress which emphasized the decentralization of some authority, the emergence of group interests, the elimination of class discrimination in higher education, and amnesty for political prisoners. These were furthered with the approval and launching of the New Economic Mechanism (NEM) in 1968 which introduced elements of a market economy, world market pricing, decentralized planning, and emphasized managerial expertise. Concern with the erosion of the preeminence of the party as well as problems with investments, trade, income ratios, and ideology caused the slowing of the implementation of the reforms in 1972.

Continued economic difficulties, however, in 1978 forced the party to again introduce NEM, stress managerial efficiency, technical modernization, and the reduction of subsidies and prices. These culminated in a series of reforms in banking, private associations, and other economic entities in the early 80s. Opposition of Kadar and his followers to further more drastic reforms forced the growing managerial and intellectual contingent of the party to overthrow him and elected Karoly Grosz to lead the party. Furthermore, policies in Romania caused a storm of criticism against the terrible treatment of the Hungarian minority. A new series of reforms began including drastic political reforms that emphasize new associations and may even allow for the formation of political parties and free elections.

III. Government and Communist Party

As in other Communist states, the foundation of the political system is the Hungarian Socialist Workers' Party. Its composition, however, was directly shaped by the reorganization that took place in 1957 after the revolution. The central party organs, the Central Committee, the 11 member politburo, and the secretariat were all filled with Kádár allies. Also, the lower ranks of the party became more and more dominated by functionaries and technocrats. The party is divided into territorial units on county, district, and village levels. The basic organizations in the armed forces, frontier guards, internal police, and in the railroad system are directly subordinated to the national Central Committee. The core of power, however, is still the Politburo.

A number of mass organizations exist that act as transmission belts to the population announcing popular decisions. One of these is the People's Patriotic Front, which embraces all mass, social, cultural, and even scientific organizations. It is designed to demonstrate the unity of the people behind the leadership. Another mass organization is the Council of Trade Unions which ideally is to serve the same function with workers.

The government, like other states of Eastern Europe, is to implement the decisions of the Politburo. The National Assembly acts as the highest organ of state authority and is endowed with supreme legislative power. Its importance is diminished because it meets only a few times a year for short periods of time. The National Assembly elects the Presidential Council, which acts as a collective president covering the legislative, executive, and judicial spheres of action. The most important governmental organ is the Council of Ministers. Local government is organized territorially on three levels composed of representative organs, local councils, and executive committees entrusted with administration. The party, however, has maintained control of all these elements of the government.

Significant changes took place in this sphere in 1985, when it was made mandatory to have two or more candidates for parliamentary and local elections. These elections have only overturned a small percentage of the representatives, but have made parliamentary debate and the possibility of real power residing in the parliament an increasingly important part of the most recent reforms. Also, reforms on the right to form associations have made nascent political parties more visible throughout the country. These associations plan--and the party apparently will approve--the right of these parties to run candidates in the next elections on separate tickets, thus, creating free elections for the first time since 1945.

IV. Economy

The economy in the late Forties and early Fifties was based on the typical centrally planned economy that emphasized the intensive development of heavy industry and the collectivization of agriculture. Problems quickly emerged because all raw materials had to be imported, an influx of workers to the cities created housing shortages, and the collectivization policies failed to increase productivity.

Reform of this system may have begun as early as 1957 when the collectivization of agriculture was actually completed. More democracy was promoted within the collectives and private plots were not only protected, but promoted. The reform of 1968 was actually begun in 1966 with comprehensive planning to ensure the efficient introduction of the reforms. The New Economic Mechanism (NEM) involved the abolition of many of the former central planning indicators as the central plan was only to specify growth figures such as national income, domestic consumption, industrial and agricultural production, construction, and real incomes, and these plans were not binding on individual enterprises. Also, major price reforms were to make 50 percent of all prices determined by market forces.

NEM, however, was to suffer because of a powerful campaign to coordinate the East European states by the Soviets and widespread concern that the regime might desert the working class. Thus, wage increases were approved for nearly a million low paid workers, the largest enterprise corporations were placed directly under Central Committee control, and the leader of the reform, Rezsö Nyers, was demoted. The greater centralization and the price controls, however, promoted an increase of Western credits that placed Hungary in serious debt.

Various debt crises and a declining growth rate forced the leadership to again implement reforms in 1978. These included a price reform extending the 1968 institutional reforms which broke up large monopolies to encourage competition and merge branch ministries, and legalized second economy activities such as economic work communities that allowed small groups of workers to set up private business in state factories in their spare time. This perhaps was best epitomized by the success of Hungarian agriculture which was producing yields slightly below those of Western countries. More recent reforms of the early 80s promoted the free flow of capital through the system by establishing a bond market through which local companies raise capital and a new banking system which allows competition for deposits and loans. These reforms have made the economy more flexible, but economic difficulties persist and further reforms appear inevitable.

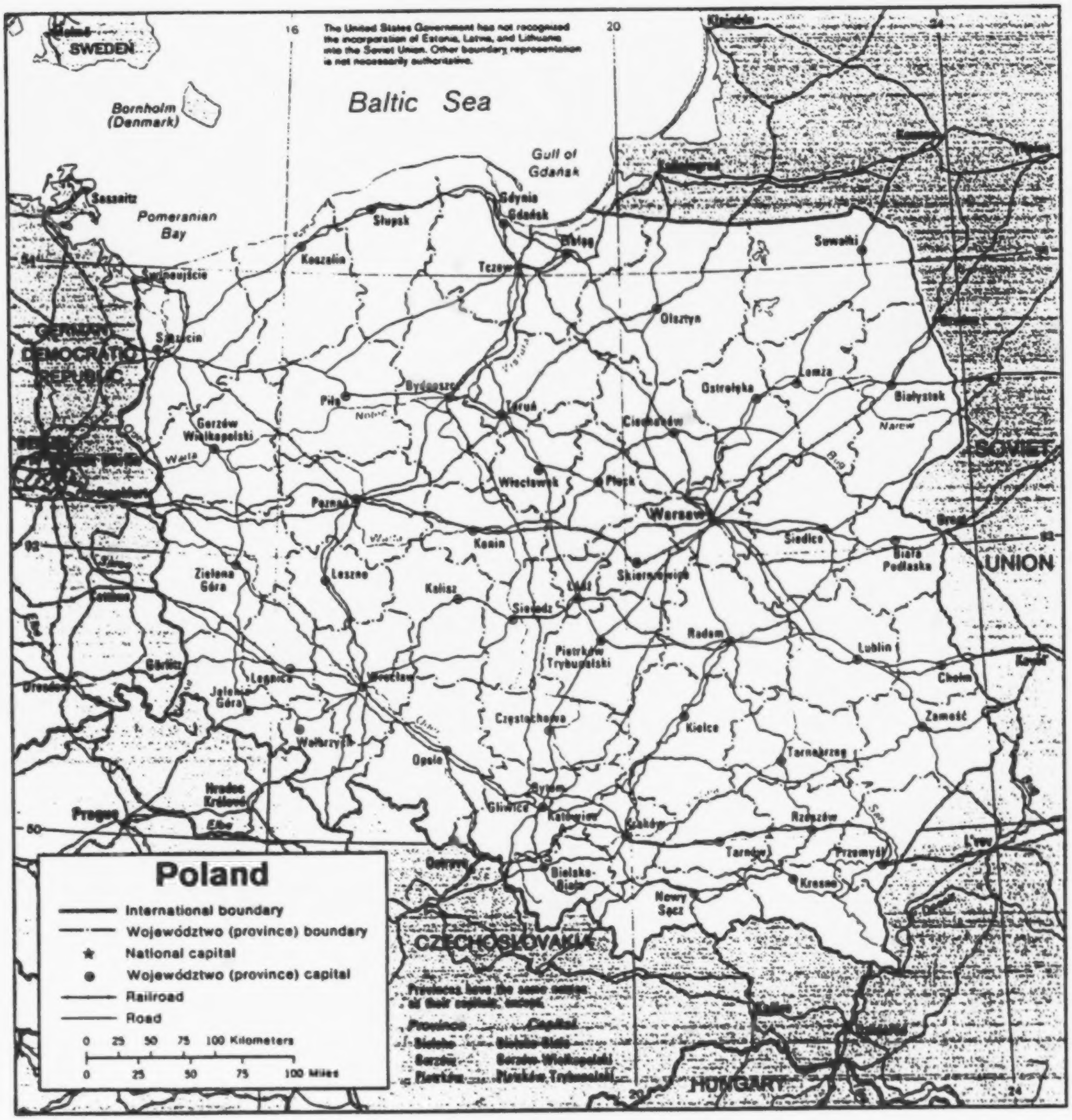
V. Religion

Roman Catholic-67.5%, Calvinist-20%, Lutheran-5%, Jewish-7.5%.

VI. Chronology

896		Hungarian tribes end migrations settling in Danube basin
1240-42		Mongols devastate Hungary
1301		Hungarian Crown passes to foreign rulers as Arpad dynasty dies out
1526-1699		Hungary divided into three parts: Turkish rule, Translyvania semi-autonomous, and Royal Hungary ruled by the Habsburgs
1699		Turks withdraw from Hungary; Habsburg rule begins
1848-49		Movement of internal reform and independence comes to head as Lajos Kossuth proclaims independence but Russian aid helps Habsburgs reestablish rule
1867		Ausgleich--Hungary gains independence from Austria in internal matters: two will collaborate in defense and foreign affairs
1918		Hungary forms own state
1919		Admiral Miklos Horthy becomes regent of Hungary and rules to 1944
1941		Hungary joins Axis
1945	November	Smallholder government formed after winning National Assembly elections
1946	November	Hungary declared a republic
1947	February	Communist party allegations against Smallholders culminate in arrest of Bela Kovacs
	May	Ferenc Nagy resigns as Hungarian Prime Minister
	August	Elections give leftists a 46% block; Communists achieve minority in National Assembly and key government posts
1949	June	Laszlo Rajk arrested for high treason--beginning of purges
1950	June/July	Rightist Social Democrats purged from Communist Party
1951	January	Industrialization, rationing of food, and collectivization sped up
	May	Janos Kadar arrested
1952	August	Matyas Rakosi elected prime minister
1952	July	Imre Nagy becomes Prime minister; Rakosi still party head collectivization abandoned
1955	March	Nagy dismissed from party; Andras Hegedus appointed prime minister
1956	February	Rajk rehabilitated
	July	Rakosi dismissed; replaced by Erno Gero, a Stalinist
	October	Nagy becomes prime minister, Gero replaced by Kadar, Withdrawal from Warsaw Pact
	November	Soviet troops enter Hungary; Nagy replaced by Kadar
1957	January	Kadar announces hardline conservative policies--strikes ensue
	May	Soviet-Hungarian agreement on stationing of troops
1958	June	Nagy executed
1963	March	Amnesty releases all political prisoners
1964	September	Roman Catholic hierarchy established with accord with church
1966	February	Conspiracy against regime by "people associated with 1956"
	November	New electorial law allows more than one candidate
1968	January	New Economic Mechanism (NEM) announced
1972	March	Students march in Budapest to commemorate 1848
1974		Economic reform slowed
1978	January	US returns crown of St. Stephan to Hungary
	March	US grants Most Favored Nation Status to Hungary
1986	November	Government quietly marks 30th anniversary of 1956
1987	March	1500 people march for liberalization in Budapest
	September	Parliament approves harsh austerity measures and personal income/value added tax

POLAND


The United States Government has not recognized the incorporation of Estonia, Latvia, and Lithuania into the Soviet Union. Other boundary representation is not necessarily authoritative.
Baltic Sea
SWEDEN
Bornholm (Denmark)
Gulf of Gdańsk
Pomeranian Bay
GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC
SOVIET UNION
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
HUNGARY
Gdynia
Gdańsk
Elbląg
Słupsk
Koszalin
Tczew
Suwałki
Olsztyn
Szczecin
Świnoujście
Piła
Bydgoszcz
Toruń
Ciechanów
Ostrołęka
Łomża
Białystok
Narew
Gorzów Wielkopolski
Warta
Włocławek
Płock
Warsaw
Poznań
Konin
Siedlce
Biała Podlaska
Skierniewice
Zielona Góra
Leszno
Kalisz
Łódź
Sieradz
Piotrków Trybunalski
Radom
Lublin
Chełm
Legnica
Wrocław
Jelenia Góra
Wałbrzych
Częstochowa
Kielce
Zamość
Tarnobrzeg
Opole
Katowice
Gliwice
Bytom
Kraków
Rzeszów
Tarnów
Przemyśl
Krosno
Bielsko-Biała
Nowy Sącz
Prague
Hradec Králové
Dresden
Görlitz
Ostrava
L'vov
Kaunas
Vilnius
Grodno
Brest
Kovel'
Kaliningrad
Klaipėda
Sassnitz
Poland
International boundary
Województwo (province) boundary
National capital
Województwo (province) capital
Railroad
Road
0 25 50 75 100 Kilometers
0 25 50 75 100 Miles
Provinces have the same names as their capitals, except:
Province Capital
Bielsko Bielsko-Biała
Gorzów Gorzów Wielkopolski
Piotrków Piotrków Trybunalski
16
20
24
54
52
50

Poland

Area: 312,677 km (120,732 sq. miles)
Population: 36.3 million
Capital: Warsaw (1.572 million)
Official Language: Polish
Religion: Roman Catholicism (93%)
Unit of Currency: Zloty
Per Capita GNP: US$3830

I. ALPHABET AND LANGUAGE

Polish spelling is largely phonetic. One letter corresponds to one sound. The letters b, d, f, k, l, m, n, p, s, t, and z are pronounced as in English. The others are as follows: a (cut), ą (nasal o, as in the French **on**), c (**rats**, ć and ci (soft **ch**), ch and h (**half**), cz (**church**), dz (**cards**), dź and dzi (budget), dz (jump), e (red) , ę (nasal e as in French **vin**), g (get), i (machine), j (young), ł (window), ń and ni (onion), o (pot), ó (rook), r (clearly trilled), rz (pleasure), ś and si (soft **sh**), sz (shop), u (cook), w (vine), y (rich), ż (gendarme), ź and zi (soft **s**).

II. History

In the tenth century the tribes on the Vistula and Oder Rivers united under the Piasts, the founders of the modern Polish state. In the centuries after unification the Polish state enjoyed great prosperity as one of the most powerful countries in Europe. Under Casimir's rule from 1333 to 1370, the Poles dominated the economy of much of Eastern Europe. The Polish-Lithuanian unification that took place under the Jagiellonian dynasty increased the size of the state to Kiev and throughout the Ukraine. The defeat of the Teutonic Knights at Grunwald in 1410 was symbolic of the many challanges that would confront Polish domination in the area. The victory also symbolized the beginning of the Golden Age of Poland that lasted until the 17th century. The gradual decline of Poland in the 17th and 18th centuries was chiefly due to changing balances of power, the development of a new type of powerful nation-state that was in direct contrast to the inability of the Polish nobility to accomplish anything because a single Polish noble who disliked a certain policy could veto any proposed action. In the mid-1600s, the country became embroiled in a war with the Cossaks of the Ukraine, Russia, and Sweden and lost a vast amount of territory. These setbacks culminated in the three successive partitions of Poland by Russia, Prussia, and Austria that ended with the total abolition of the Polish state in 1795. Although Napoleon reestablished a Polish state in 1807, the Congress of Vienna convened in 1815 after his defeat again reinstated the partitions. The Poles rebelled for the first time in 1830 and again in 1863 but both were put down.

The simultaneous collapse of Germany at the end of WWI and the Russian Revolution created a political vacuum that permitted the allies to establish an independent Poland. Polish victory in the Polish-Soviet War of 1920 and the harshness of the Versailles treaty allowed Poland to set up a huge state that included many minority nationalities. The chief problem after the war was the economic chaos caused by the unification of three areas under three different countries, the effects of the depression, and the inability of the numerous political parties to formulate effective policies. This problem led to the military coup of Jozef Pilsudski who established some sort of order in the country. Poland, however, collapsed when the Germans invaded in 1939. The war years were extremely harsh on the Poles as millions died in the genocide, guerrilla war, and economic chaos that accompanied it. The successive defeats of the Jews in the Warsaw Ghetto revolt of 1943 and of the Home Army, Poland's underground army, in the Warsaw Uprising of 1944 in effect destroyed effective military opposition to the Soviets. The elimination of any political opposition after the war by the Communist party was still accomplished more easily with the elimination of this military arm.

The initial policy of Stalinization was to penetrate Polish society and establish control of the country. The typical centrally planned economy was established. The failure to penetrate the society and the alienation of the working class and intellectuals led to the collapse of the original leadership and its replacement by Wladyslaw Gomulka. However, Gomulka ran into a basic problem because whereas the population saw him as the leader who symbolized the transformation of society, he saw himself as the preserver of traditional communist institutions. A considerable degree of personal freedom was allowed, especially for the church. A series of reforms were introduced and the collectivization of agriculture was stopped. After attempts at consolidation, however, disgruntlement again surfaced and led to the 1968 university riots over the banning of plays in Warsaw. Following the riots, the hardliners led by Mieczyslaw Moczar began an anti-Semitic and anti-intellectual campaign that alienated much of the population. The dissatisfaction with the Gomulka regime culminated in the 1970 workers' riots, when the government announced drastic rises in the cost of food right before Christmas. Most of these riots centered along the Baltic coastline in the cities of Szczecin and Gdansk and resulted in the loss of many lives.

These last riots also illustrated the dissatisfaction with Gomulka within the regime due to his inability to deal with either the economy or the hardliners. This feeling was palpable mostly in the ranks of the technocratic moderates led by Edward Gierek and the military led by Wojciech Jaruzelski. Thus, Gomulka was replaced by Gierek. He initially got off to a good start eliminating Moczar in 1971. The party was to get out of the running of the economy leaving the field to the state apparatus. In 1974, however, the reforms were halted due to Soviet pressure and fear of going too far. Also, the economy was going well, that reform was considered unnecessary. At that point Gierek began to recentralize the running of the economy and weakened the power of middle and lower level bureaucrats. Also, a series of high level scandals began to fetter away the prestige of the leadership. With the world oil crisis, however, the economy got into serious troubles as the government borrowed exorbitant amounts from the West. Thus, in 1976, when Gierek tried to raise food prices, riots broke out in the country forcing him to rescind the price increases the next day.

Because of beatings that occurred during the riots, the Workers' Defense Council (KOR) was formed. A series of strikes in the Gdansk area in 1980 erupted into a nationwide strike that demanded a free trade union. Divisions within the party caused by the fall of Gierek and the election of Stanislaw Kania and the inability of these factions to form a coherent response resulted in the establishment of an independent trade union, Solidarity. The gradual weakening of the economy, Soviet pressure to respond to the crisis, and the election of General Jaruzelski to the head of the party resulted in a military coup in December 1981 that eliminated the Solidarity trade union. The failure of the Jaruzelski regime to respond effectively to the continuous economic crisis, the further alienation of all classes of society, and the new pressure to reform both the economy and the political system by Gorbachev has resulted in a new round of negotiations that now is actually changing the entire political structure of the country. In the Spring of 1989 Solidarity was again leagalized and democratic elections took place in which Solidarity backed candidates won an overwhelming victory.

III. Government and Communist Party

As with most socialist states, the Polish United Workers' Party is considered the leading light of the society. The constitution it established called the UPWP as the "bearer of sovereign power" and stressed the class nature of the government in that the role of the government is to secure and protect the interests of the working class. The party is organized on a five tier system based on territorial (administrative divisions of the country) and functional (place of employment) principles. These elect members to the Party Congress, which simply acts as a rubber stamp for decisions made in the Politburo of the Central Committee. All elections, however, are dominated by the UPWP because candidates are nominated by the "mass organizations of the working party" (i.e. the UPWP).

The government is based on the constitution of the state. It is noticeable that this document lacks the traditional Western Democratic list of rights and duties of citizens. The constitution introduces Soviet institutions, although all practices are not included. Until June 1989, state power was unified in the unicameral Sejm (Parliament) responsible for the passage of national economic plans and elections to the 15 member Council of State; that body is now bicameral. The government's main function is to direct the national economy through the preparation of national plans and to supervise the functioning of these plans. Local government is based on a four level system: county, province, municipalities, and urban/rural.

IV. Economy

The Polish economy is frequently called the basket case of Eastern Europe as any attempts to reform or improve it have consistently failed. The initial system of course was nearly identical to the stalinist system described in the general section. The Gomulka regime altered agriculture irrevocably as the government refused to collectivize the peasantry because of strident opposition. Relatively little however was done to alter the system until the early seventies. At that time, economic priorities were changed allocating more resources to the production of food and consumer goods, while foreign trade was changed giving more freedom to industrial exporters and importers. Also, the economy was to be decentralized to industrial combinations (WOGS) which were to an intermediate level of management between central bureaucracies and the enterprises. Agriculture, however was the area that needed the most attention as food prices were frozen because excess demand made free prices excessively high. By 1975, however, the confusion these reforms caused in the economy forced the government to withdraw the reforms and return to centralized planning.

At the time the government returned to centralized planning, Western credits became available en masse and the government jumped at them. But these credits were wasted on subsidies to maintain unproductive firms, showy projects and other wasteful endeavors. These massive credits led the economy into recession and finally forced the government to crack down on consumption, leading to the formation of Solidarity. By the time of martial law, the economy had collapsed to an unprecedented extent as standards of hygiene, the water supply, transport, hospitals, and schools were all in serious decline. Economic reforms promoting workers' councils were simply not implemented. Thus, the economic situation of Poland continues to deteriorate in the eighties and is in need of drastic measures.

V. Religion

The Catholic Church, particularly in the late 1970s and 1980s reasserted itself by boldly reminding the Communist authorities in Warsaw that the Church is an ancient Polish institution. The Polish Communist Party benefited from the election to the papacy in 1978 of Polish born Karol Wojtyla (Pope John Paul II). The Pope has encouraged the Church to resist atheism and Communist efforts in order to deny the party legitimate influence in Polish life. Under the Jaruzelski crackdown the government has attacked the Church for "expanded sponsorship of culture." Roman Catholic 95%, Uniate, Greek Orthodox, Protestant and Jewish 5%.

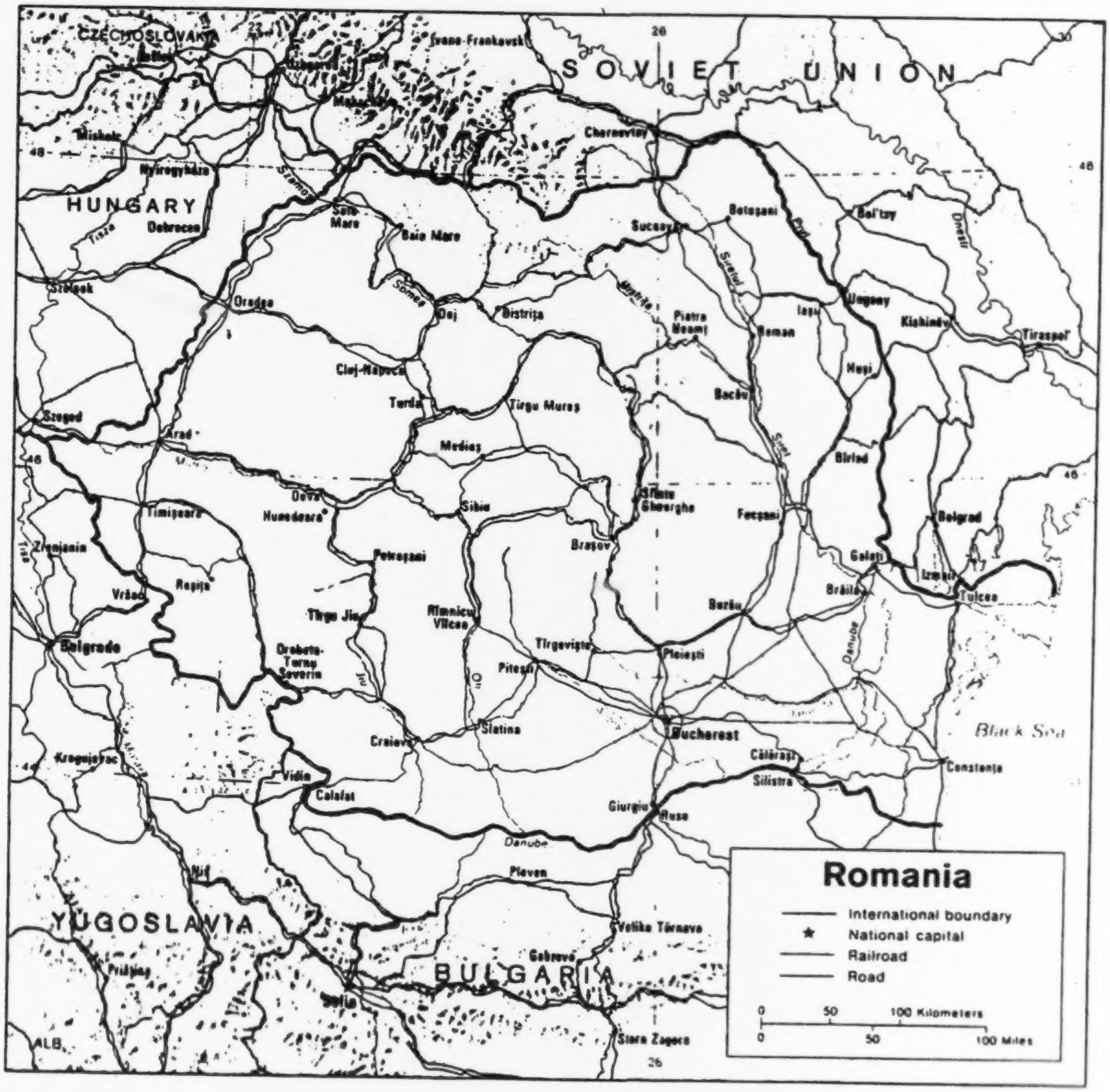
VI. CHRONOLOGY

900-1000		Tribes on Vistula and Oder Rivers united under Piasts, founders of modern Polish state
1333-1370		Casimir's rule; Poland enjoys great prosperity
1386		Polish-Lithuanian union; Jagiellonian dynasty replaces Piast dynasty
1410		Polish-Lithuanian armies defeat Teutonic Knights at Grunwald
1654-1667		Polish-Lithuanian state embroiled in wars with Sweden and the Cossacks of Russia and Ukraine; much territory is lost
1683		Polish army under King Jan Sobieski save Vienna from the Turks
1772-1795		Polish state eliminated by three successive partitions of Russia, Prussia and Austria
1807		Poland reestablished by Napoleon
1815		Congress of Vienna redefines Polish boundaries; Poland placed under Russsian rule
1830-1831		Poles rebel unsuccessful
1863		Poles again revolt unsuccessfully
1918		Collapse of Imperial Germany and Russia allows reestablishment of independent Poland
1926		Jozef Pilsudski becomes dictator of Poland
1939		Nazi Germany conquers Poland
1945	July	Polish provisional government recognized by Allies
	August	Polish-Soviet agreements on establishing Polish border at Oder-Neisse line
1947	January	Communist Party under Bierut and Gomulka wins elections
	July	Poland accepts Marshall Plan and then rejects it two days later
1948	December	Polish United Workers' Party (PUWP) formed; proposes collectivization and development of heavy industry
1949	January	Former German territories are incorporated into Poland
	November	Gomulka expelled from PUWP, Soviet Marshal Rokossovski becomes Polish Minister of Defense
1950		Mass expulsions of Germans living in Poland
1956	February	Gomulka released from prison
	March	Edward Ochab succeeds Bierut as head of PUWP
	June	Strikes in Poznan
	October	Gomulka reinstated as General Secretary of PUWP
1960	January	Secret meeting between Gomulka and Cardinal Wyszynski leads to Church-State accord
	June	Economic acceleration and investment in heavy industry announced
1961		Education minister eases restrictions on teaching of Catholicism
1964		US grants Most-Favored-Nation
1970	December	Treaty with FRG recognizes the Oder-Neisse border
		Riots and strikes occur in major cities in response to price increases and economic reforms
		Gierek replaces Gomulka as Party leader
1971		Gierek announces increase of standard of living as a top priority
1976	June	Riots over foood price increases.
	July	Price increases reduced then abolished in response to riots; foreign debt increases dramatically
1978	October	Polish Cardinal Karol Wojtyla elected Pope, takes the name John Paul II
1979	June	John Paul II visits Poland
1980	July	Increase in meat prices causes protests and strikes across Poland
	August	80,000 workers take over Lenin Shipyards in Gdansk Gierek resigns; Party leadership reorganized
		Agreement reached on workers' rights to strike and to form independent trade union
	September	Kania named new Party leader; Solidarity forms
	October	Solidarity legalized
	November	Warsaw Pact forces manuever near Polish border; Solidarity recognizes role of Party
	December	Meat rationing; austerity plan introduced; strikes called off as Warsaw Pact troops mass on border

1981	February	Jaruzelski named Prime Minister; students form union
	March	Warsaw Pact manuevers continue; strikes begin anew; US and EEC extend aid to Poland, reschedule Polish debt payments; US issues warning to USSR against interference in Poland
	April	Other Warsaw Pact nations attack Polish reforms
	September	Strikes continue; government warns of crackdown
	October	Solidarity pleads for unity; Polish army deployed
	November	Strikes end; discussions begin between state and Solidarity
	December	Solidarity makes new demands for free elections, access to media, limiting planned economy; Martial law is declared, Solidarity leaders are arrested, strikes are crushed
1982	May	30,000 Poles march in Warsaw to protest martial law
	July	Government postpones John Paul II's visit
	October	New laws enacted against Solidarity; US withdraws Most Favored Nation status
	November	Walesa released
	December	Martial law suspended
1983	January	New official trade unions established
	May	Nationwide demonstrations for Solidarity
	June	John Paul II visits and criticizes government
	July	Martial law is lifted, amnesty for political prisoners declared
	October	Walesa wins Nobel Peace Prize; rationing continues
1984	July	660 political prisoners released
	October	Roman Catholic priest Father Jerzy Popieluszko murdered by Polish security forces
1985	January	Reagan lifts sanctions against Poland citing "general improvement"
	February	4 Polish security forces officers sentenced for Popieluszko murder
1986	June	Government suppression of Solidarity activists
	December	Jaruzelski forms consultative council, including the Party, the Church and Solidarity members, to advise government
1987	March	Price increases for consumer goods announced
	April	Joint Soviet-Polish Cooperation treaty calls for elimination of "blank spots" from their history
	June	Pope John Paul II makes third visit to his homeland
	October	New economic and political reforms announced
1989	February	Round Table Talks take place with participation of Party, Solidarity and Church representatives
	June	Elections to newly formed bicameral Parliament results in overwhelming victory of Solidarity-backed candidates
	July	Jaruzelski elected President, resigns as First Secretary of PUWP; Mieczyslaw Rakowski named First Secretary of PUWP; General Czeslaw Kiszczak, head of the Security Services through the 1980s elected Prime Minister

The Indiana University Polish Studies Center has slide programs, audio cassette tapes and videotapes available for free loan. For a copy of their audio-visual guide write to IU Polish Studies Center, Memorial Hall W002, Bloomington, IN 47405. (812) 855-8119.

ROMANIA


CZECHOSLOVAKIA
SOVIET UNION
HUNGARY
YUGOSLAVIA
BULGARIA
ALB.
Black Sea
Ivano-Frankovsk
Chernovtsy
Miskolc
Nyiregyháza
Debrecen
Szolnok
Szeged
Satu Mare
Baia Mare
Oradea
Dej
Bistrița
Suceava
Botoșani
Bal'tsy
Iași
Ungeny
Kishinëv
Tiraspol'
Piatra Neamț
Roman
Cluj-Napoca
Turda
Tîrgu Mureș
Bacău
Huși
Arad
Mediaș
Bîrlad
Deva
Hunedoara
Sibiu
Sfîntu Gheorghe
Focșani
Timișoara
Zrenjanin
Brașov
Bolgrad
Petroșani
Galați
Izmail
Tulcea
Reșița
Vršac
Brăila
Tîrgu Jiu
Rîmnicu Vîlcea
Buzău
Belgrade
Drobeta-Turnu Severin
Tîrgoviște
Ploiești
Pitești
Bucharest
Slatina
Craiova
Călărași
Constanța
Silistra
Kragujevac
Vidin
Calafat
Giurgiu
Ruse
Pleven
Niš
Veliko Tŭrnovo
Gabrovo
Priština
Sofia
Stara Zagora
Tisza
Someș
Mureș
Siret
Prut
Dnestr
Danube
Olt
Jiu
22
26
30
48
46
44
Romania
International boundary
National capital
Railroad
Road
0
50
100 Kilometers
0
50
100 Miles

Romania

Area: 237,500 sq. km (91,704 sq. miles)
Population: 22.653 million
Capital: Bucharest (1.96 million)
Official Language: Romanian
Religion: Romanian Orthodox Church (80%)
Unit of Currency: Leu
Per Capita GNP: US$1900

I. Alphabet and Language

Romanian is perhaps the easiest of the East European languages for an American to handle since it is related to the Romance languages and is recognizable. The language stems from Latin. The pronunciation rules are relatively simple. **E** at the beginning of a word is pronounced **ye**, **e** or **i** before another vowel is **y** as a consonant, **i** at the beginning of a word is **yi**, **i** at the end of a word is **y** as in yellow, and **o** and **u** before another vowel is **w**. Consonants are like English except that **c** is **k**, except before **e** and **i** when it is **ch**, **che** and **chi** are **ke** and **ki**, **g** is hard and pronounced like **j** before **e** and **i**, **j** is **zh** as in French, **ş** is **sh**, and **t** is **ts**.

II. History

The origins of the Romanians are still somewhat in dispute. The most generally accepted theory is that the Romanians descend from the ancient Dacians who ruled the area in the 1st century. In the 2nd century the Romans took over the area under Emporer Trajan in the process assimilating the Dacians. When the Romans evacuated the area in the fourth centuries the people that were left behind are what we today consider Romanians. Until the 11th century, the Romanians were ruled by a variety of migrating tribes that for one reason or another stayed for a period in the area. In the 11th century, the Hungarians took control of Transylvania, although the two principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia remained independent. In the mid-1400s, the Romanians led by Stephan the Great of Moldavia maintained an independent state that held off the Turks for 50 years. Stephan's successors, however, were not as talented and were forced to acknowledge Turkish overlordship and pay tribute. The area was never occupied by the Turks. The Romanian nobility maintained a feudal society, but never lived relatively well until the Ottoman Empire went into decline. In the early 1600s, as in Bulgaria, Greek influence began to predominate emphasizing the teaching of Greek, economic life centered on Greece, and forbidding the Slavonic liturgy, as well as the choice of prince. Russian victories in the Crimea in the 1700s and the Russian defeat in the Crimean War left the Romanians first under Russian rule and then under their own leadership. At this time the great reformer Ion Cuza was the leader of Wallachia and Moldavia, but his efforts at land reform were cut short due to opposition of the landowners. Turkish defeat in 1878 led to the actual declaration of independence and the establishment of a Romanian monarch, King Karl, albeit of German origin. The Second Balkan War in 1913 saw Romania join the other Balkan nations in an attack on Bulgaria, thus gaining the disputed area of Dubodja.

In the first world war, Romanian irredenta remained Transylvania and Bessarabia, areas disputed with the Hungarians and the Russians in succession. The Romanians, fearing a successful Russian offensive that would deny them Transylvania, entered the war on the Allied side and attacked the Habsburgs in 1916. They were forced, however, to give up and join the Central Powers after a series of defeats. In 1918, however, they rejoined the allies and retook all of Transylvania and Bessarabia. The interwar years saw domestic political turmoil due to the ability of whatever party that was in power to use the Ministry of the Interior to stuff ballot boxes and rig elections. But the Romanians maintained control of their territory until the rise of Hitler and the Vienna Diktats of 1939 which gave part of Transylvania to the Hungarians and Bessarabia to the Soviet Union. During this time Romanian politics became more violent as a Romanian nazi party, the Iron Guard, became more powerful, but a coup in 1942 eliminated them as a political force in the country. The Romanians entered the war with the Axis hoping to regain Transylvania, but in 1944 switched sides and joined the allies ensuring the recapture of Transylvania, although Bessarabia was to remain in Soviet hands.

As in the other East European countries, the Communists took power in 1944 after a series of coalitions and a campaign to eliminate any rival parties. Significantly, in the dismissals of the 1950s that inevitably followed the takeover, the communists who had stayed in the country in the interwar years, the so-called "Home" communists, under George Gheorghiu-Dej defeated those communists who had been in the Soviet Union, the "Moscovites" led by Ana Pauker. This along with the Sino-Soviet split of the late 1950s allowed the Romanians to claim more independence from the bloc. It is significant that the period of conflict only began after the Soviets had withdrawn their troops from Romania as part of a peace initiative to the West. The spark that started the conflict was the 1958-59 Romanian refusal to participate in the integrative "socialist division of labor," a plan to rationalize and specialize economic effort in the CMEA because it would force the Romanians to give up their industrialization programs and doom the country to perpetual underdevelopment. The split with the Soviets became solidified in the April Central Committee Declaration of 1964 which gave the Romanian view of independence, equal socialist relations, and the importance and integrity of small states. Also, this defiance of the Soviets gave the Romanian Communist Party a measure of legitimacy that it had never previously enjoyed.

The death of Gheorghiu-Dej in 1965 led to the rise of Nicolae Ceausescu who still leads the communist party today. The sixties were a period of relative domestic liberalism when culture was renationalized, political prisoners were released, the Minister of the Interior responsible for much of the terror of the 1950s, Alexandru Draghici, was purged, Soviet advisors eliminated, and foreign policy relied on Western financial and political help. Many believe that this was only a policy that Ceausescu followed in order to eliminate the hardline opposition to him, and, once this opposition had been eliminated by the mid-1970s, he himself became a hardliner. Ceausescu's relative popularity however has dissipated in the 1980s as economic policies employed previously began to collapse and a neo-Stalinist system of terror developed a pervasive secret police. Opposition has emerged somewhat as rumors of military coups and workers' strikes in the Jiu Valley in 1977 and in Cluj in 1987 show. Furthermore the policy of systematization has caused an uproar among the Hungarians in Hungary who claimed that the plan hoped to "romanianize" the significant Hungarian minority in Romania. Thus, more determined opposition has emerged in the last years to Ceausescu's leadership.

III. Government and Communist Party

Although the structures are similar to other bloc states, the political system in Romania differs slightly in significant ways. The party is one of the largest in Eastern Europe constituting 14% of the population which reflects the rejection of the party as the leading and guiding force in society and tries to emphasize "the unity of the Party and the People." Differences exist also in the Political Executive Committee (the Politburo) which consists of forty people and a huge Central Committee.

These same strange combinations exist as well between the state and the party. In contrast to other states, the party is not the leading group, but rather unified with the state especially at county and communal levels. At the national level as well, there are joint party-state bodies. The party still maintains primacy in decision making while the state has only managerial functions. Also, similar to other countries, mass organizations exist for the transmission of information to and from the population.

The most significant political trend is the power that Nicolae Ceausescu has accumulated. He helped to adopt a policy of cadre rotation which rotates all but a few individuals after two or three years to a new position ostentsibly to make sure that political executives remain "generalists." Actually it is to prevent any rivals from accumulating any political power base from which they can attack Ceausescu and to disassociate administrators from specific bureaucratic interests diffusing the impact of bureaucratic politics.

The last curious aspect of Romania is the personality cult that Ceausescu has built up around himself and his wife, Elena. The role of the family in the party is significant as Elena is now considered the number two person in the regime symbolized by her position as Chairman of the Central Committee for state and party cadres. Even his irresponsible son Nicu has gained high posts in the government.

IV. Economy

The Romanian economy has remained a Stalinist edifice throughout the eighties. Throughout the 70s, the tenets of the system seemed in accordance with Ceausescu's personal inclinations: human regimentation, heavy industry, "gigantomania," the socialization of agriculture, and ideologically motivated prejudice against private gain. This resulted in considerable success in the seventies with high growth rates and investment, the wholesale transformation of agriculture, and the development of a relatively industrialized society. The extensive industrialization and labor transfers to industry, however, have reached a point of diminishing returns as there has been no increase of productivity nor of quality of goods.

The maintenance of the stalinist system does not mean that no reforms were implemented. Innovations were introduced to establish "collegiality," ownership, and worker self-management, to decentralize some of the economic decision making such as profit sharing, and to improve productivity and efficiency, but reforms have been superficial. These failures and the oil crisis led to significant problems that were only solved by taking out loans from the West. These resulted in huge trade deficits. To eliminate these, Ceausescu rescheduled credits, minimized imports and maximized exports, thus, bringing untold miseries to the people in the form of food shortages and rationing, heavy price increases, and energy shortages such as no heating in the winter. These cuts have brought Romania to the brink of economic disaster.

V. Religion

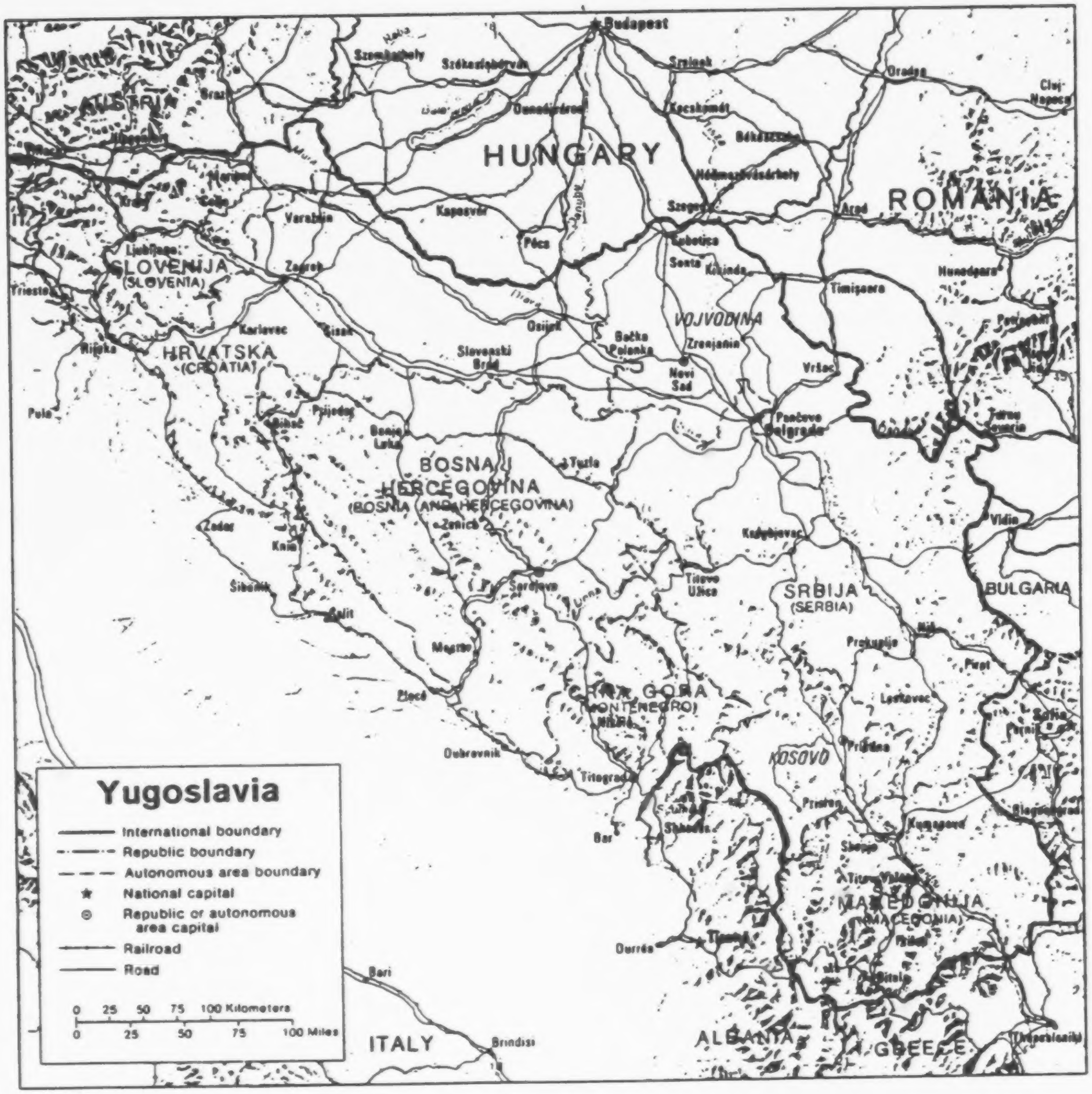
Romanian Orthodox-80%, Roman Catholic-6%, Calvinist, Lutheran, Jewish, and Baptist-6%.

VI. Chronology

2nd Century		Rome brings Balkan Peninsula under its rule
11th Century		Transylvania comes under Hungarian rule
1250-1350		Romanians found principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia
1774		Russia defeats Turks--becomes "guarantor" of principalities
1829		Russia again defeats Turks--guarantees autonomy of Moldavia and Wallachia and Russian collective protection
1856		Russia defeated in Crimean War placing Moldavia and Wallachia under great power protection
1859		Moldavia and Wallachia united and named Romania
1878		Turks defeated--Romania gains full independence
1913		Second Balkan War: Romania joins war against Bulgaria and take Dubrodja
1916		Romania enters WWI attacking Austria-Hungary but is defeated and joins the central powers
1918		Rejoins allies doubling its territory taking Transylvania and Bessarabia
1941-44		Joins Axis but loses parts of Transylvania to Hungary
1945	March	Radescu government resigns: new government formed under Petru Groza
1946	May	Agreement on disposition of Romanian territory: Transylvania given to Romania
	November	National Democratic Front wins general elections winning 70% of vote; charges of discrimination and arrests of opposition
1947	October	Communist and Social Democratic Parties unite to form Romanian Workers' Party
	December	Romanian monarchy abolished
1950	June	Party purges 192,000 members
1951	September	10 Roman Catholic Priests arrested for espionage and tried
1952	May	Cabinet purge of Ana Pauker and followers
1953	August	Gheorghiu-Dej call industrial effort excessive and announces increases in food and consumer supplies
	September	Romanian Jews arrested and tried for Zionism
1958	July	Soviet troops withdrawn
1962	March	Romania opposes CMEA division of labor
1964	April	Offers to mediate Sino-Soviet dispute
	June	Release of all political prisoners in past three years
1965	July	New Party statute and constitution asserting Romanian independence; industrial development stressed
1966	May	Ceausescu attacks Soviet seizure of Bukovina, existence of blocs
1967	January	Establishes relations with FRG
1969	June	Romania dissents to Brezhnev Doctrine
	August	Nixon visits Romania
1971	November	Ceausescu calls for role of party to be strengthened to combat liberalizing trends in culture and art

1972	February	General Ion Serb executed for passing military secrets to USSR
1973	June	Ceausescu first East European leader to visit FRG
1974	April	Dissents to Soviet proposals at world meeting of Communist parties
	July	Receives world bank loan and announces greater control of economy, investment, and foreign trade
1977	August	Miners in Jiu Valley strike over living conditions
1978	November	Romania refuses to contribute 923$ million to Warsaw Pact
1980	March	Criticizes USSR invasion of Afghanistan
1981	July	Requests hard currency credit from CMEA
1985	May	Ceausescu proposes freeze on military expenditures
	October	Executive political committee declares state of emergency due to energy crisis
1987	May	Gorbachev visits
	December	10,000 citizens riot in Brasov

YUGOSLAVIA


Budapest
HUNGARY
ROMANIA
AUSTRIA
SLOVENIJA (SLOVENIA)
Ljubljana
Zagreb
HRVATSKA (CROATIA)
VOJVODINA
Novi Sad
Beograd
BOSNA I HERCEGOVINA (BOSNIA AND HERCEGOVINA)
Sarajevo
SRBIJA (SERBIA)
BULGARIA
CRNA GORA (MONTENEGRO)
Titograd
KOSOVO
Priština
MAKEDONIJA (MACEDONIA)
Skopje
Dubrovnik
Split
Rijeka
Trieste
Timişoara
Bari
Brindisi
Durrës
ITALY
ALBANIA
GREECE
Yugoslavia
International boundary
Republic boundary
Autonomous area boundary
National capital
Republic or autonomous area capital
Railroad
Road
0 25 50 75 100 Kilometers
0 25 50 75 100 Miles

Yugoslavia

Area: 225,840 sq km (98,772 sq miles)
Population: 22.745 million
Capital: Belgrade (1.209 million)
Official Language: Serbo-Croatian, Slovene, Macedonian
Religion: Orthodox (41%), Roman Catholicism (32%), Islam (12%), Protestantism (1%)
Unit of Currency: Dinar
Per Capita GNP: US$2430

I. Alphabets and Languages

Both the Latin and Cyrillic alphabets are used in Yugoslavia. One interesting feature of Serbo-Croatian is that the vowel sounds do not vary from word to word as they do in English. Serbian is written in the Cyrillic alphabet and Croatian in the Latin alphabet.

II. History

Yugoslavia means land of the south slavs. This is significant because Yugoslavia does not connote a particular nationality but rather the political grouping of various nationalities that have different cultures, histories, traditions, religions, and even alphabets. The South Slavs were a loosely organized collection of tribes under local chieftains who moved from north of the Carpathians to their present home in the sixth and seventh centuries. In the eighth and ninth centuries, they were converted to Christianity by both the Roman Catholic Church and the Orthodox Church. The Slovenes who live in the northwest corner of Yugoslavia have never formed a united, independent state. They lived under German domination since the eighth century adopting Habsburg culture, a higher literacy rate, and industrialized society. The Croats lived to the south of the Slovenes between the Adriatic and the Drava Rivers. They had formed an independent state in the Middle Ages, but in 1102 Hungary acquired the throne putting Croatia under Austrian and Hungarian influence for eight centuries. The Croatians always maintained both a Ban (governor) and a Sabor (parliament) thus, keeping some autonomy. The Croatians took up Roman Catholicism and the latin alphabet thus keeping themselves more or less oriented towards the west throughout their history. The Serbs are the largest minority in Yugoslavia. They were at first under the sovereignty of the Byzantine Empire which converted them to Orthodoxy and the cyrillic alphabet. They formed their own independent state in 1219, which flourished under the rule of King Dusan between 1331 and 1355 conquering Macedonia, Thessaly, Eprius, and Albania. The Turks, however, conquered the Serbs after the battle of Kosovo in 1389 dominating them for five centuries. Two other smaller South Slavic tribes live in the area that now comprises Yugoslavia: the Montenegrins and the Macedonians. The Montenegrins are actually Serbs who moved into the mountains of southern Yugoslavia in the middle ages. The Turks took control of the area in 1514, but due to the mountainous terrain and the rebellious nature of the people, Turkish sovereignty was never really exercised. The attempt to distinguish a Macedonian people is actually the point of some controversy because of the contested nature of Macedonia itself. Albania, Greece, Bulgaria, and Yugoslavia all claim Macedonia and some claim that Macedonians are actually the same as Bulgarians.

In the 19th Century, the growth of Serbian national consciousness, the decline of Ottoman power, and the intervention of the great powers resulted in the first great revolt of the Serbs under national hero George Karadjordje in 1804. Although this was defeated, another revolt in 1815 led by Milos Obrenovic finally gained autonomy for the Serbs. In 1878 a simmering peasant revolt in the province of Bosnia-Hercegovina led to the intervention and annexation of Bosnia-Hercegovina by the Austrians of an area which although it is chiefly populated by Slavs who converted to Muslim after conquest by the Turks, was claimed by the Serbs. This conflict did not come to the fore at first because the now independent Serbs were busy in the 1912-13 Balkan Wars which gave Serbia control of a majority of the contested areas of Macedonia. The conflict did erupt in June 1914 over the assassination of Austrian archduke Ferdinand which coincidentially started the First World War. The Serbs and the Montenegrins were conquered in 1915 by the Bulgarians and the Austrians. The Croats and Slovenes fought enthusiastically for the Austro-Hungarian Empire. The collapse of the empire in 1918, however, left them nervous as to their future due to Italian ambitions to control the Adriatic coastline. So, both the Yugoslav Commission, a group of London based exiles from the empire hoping to make accommodations with the Serbs, and the Zagreb National Council, formed in 1918 in Croatia when the empire broke down, agreed to unite with the Serbs.

The first attempt at unification was miserable. The kingdom, named the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, was based on a centralized Serbian administration that wanted to simply extend Serbian rule, while the other nationalities wanted a decentralized state which left the republics autonomous in internal affairs but gave the federal government authority in defense and foreign affairs. The conflicts that Serb domination generated in society forced King Alexander in 1929 to overthrow the constitutional government and place himself at the head of state. His assassination in 1934, however, illustrated the further disintegration of the state which became permanent in 1941 when the Germans invaded Yugoslavia to protect their flank before the invasion of the USSR. Rump fascist states were set up in Serbia led by Nedic and in Croatia led by Ante Pavelic and his Utasi. Guerrilla groups erupted throughout the country such as the Chetniks led by Mihailovic and the communist Partizans led by Tito. Such a situation led to chaos and civil war in which millions died. In the end the communist-led partisans won the war and eventually drove out the Germans, Italians, and Bulgarians as well as eliminated its internal rivals for power.

Tito hoped to establish a state that secured "unity and brotherhood" based on the ideas of federalism and socialism. But, Yugoslavia did not become a part of the Soviet bloc because the Red Army did not liberate the country, and the Partisans maintained control of the country. Tito began to make independent stands on domestic and foreign policy that came into conflict with the Soviet Union and led to a complete break in 1948. The Yugoslavs developed their own theory of socialism shortly thereafter to justify their rule called self-management emphasizing the withering away of the state, worker management of property, autonomous enterprises, use of the market, and worker dictated wages.

These policies, however, began to run into trouble in the sixties in conflicts over investment and whether the main power of governing should belong to the federal government, the republics, communes, or enterprises. The liberals wanted a decentralized government with power residing with the republics, while centralizers wanted power in Belgrade. Furthermore, the conflict was based on national lines as the liberals comprised the main money earners in the country, Croatia and Slovenia, and the conservatives tended to be the Serbs. The defeat of the conservatives was symbolized by the economic reforms of 1963 and the fall of the head of the secret police, Alexander Rankovic in 1966.

This, however, gave even more impetus to nationalism as the Croats began to demand the right to keep an even higher share of the foreign currency spent in their republic, which is considerable because of the international popularity of the Dalmatian coastline. This nationalism forced Tito to step in threatening to use the armed forces to break Croatian nationalism in December of 1971.

Since the death of Tito, however, national conflicts have erupted to an even greater extent. This is due in part to the inability of the party to find a strong and respected leader like Tito. Also this is due to burgeoning Albanian nationalism which is demanding the right to a separate republic. Riots erupted in the Albanian autonomous republic of Kosovo in 1981 after the refusal of this demand. The main reason for the refusal of this demand is that Serbian nationalism has blossomed demanding that the two autonomous regions be returned to Serbia. This rising Serbian nationalism has in turn cause a ripple of fear to go through the Croats and Slovenes dreading a return to the interwar years of Serbian dominance. These conflicts seem to be leading Yugoslavia deeper and deeper into a conflict from which only civil war or chaos can emerge.

III. Government and Communist Party

The system of government in Yugoslavia has been significantly altered from the previous and, as can be seen in other countries, "leading role" position. This resulted primarily from a 1970 constitutional amendment formally allocating prime sovereignty to the six republics and two autonomous regions. The federal powers were limited to foreign policy, national defense, measures to ensure a unified Yugoslav economy, common monetary and trade policies, and insurance of ethnic and individual rights. This significantly altered the structure of government as power now resides with the regional leadership and not with the national communist party.

The leadership of the country was further altered in 1978 when the "standing rules" for collective leadership were published. Tito realized he was nearing death and that a "correct" ethnic balance was needed in the leadership to ensure no one nor any one nationality would gain excessive power. Thus, a rotation system of leadership was consecrated in which the presidents of the state and of the Yugoslav Party rotated annually on an ethnic basis. It was felt that more stability was needed in the federal government as the federal prime minister only would rotate every four years. However, as mentioned before power to pick who would be rotated in lies with the regions and not with the federal government.

IV. Economy

The self-management system described above has been altered significantly due both to weaknesses in its operation and ethnic conflicts. The primary change began in 1960 with the debate on investment and income distribution and whether power should lie with the federal government, the republics, communes, or enterprises. The liberals chiefly from economically advanced republics argued for decentralization from the center mainly due to widespread resentment in those areas to high financial contributions to the center being redistributed to the south. The conservatives from the South on the other hand argued that centrally directed investment and subsidization of new industry and economic infrastructure in the South is necessary until a level of economic self-sufficiency is reached. These debates resulted in the 1963-66 reforms allocating more power to local enterprises, communes, and self-managing associations that would rely on the market mechanism to conduct economic life.

By the 1970s the state's financial situation was weakened as the state's direct and exclusive sources of income were further limited. In 1976, problems with the system convinced leaders to further alter the system to make self-management a concern and privlege of the workers. The main unit of self-management was now the Basic Organization of Associated Labor (BOAL), which are autonomous administrative and financial units governed by workers' councils. They were made responsible for wages, production, prices, markets, and credit policy. The goal here was to break the hold managers had on the system of production. The problem was that the chaos and fragmentation of the economy furthered the deterioration of the economy to even worse levels than previously experienced.

V. Religion

Yugoslavia's diversity is reflected in its religious composition. The Northern area, Slovenia and Croatia, is Catholic. Serbia is predominately Orthodox and the Muslim population predominates in Bosnia-Hercegovina and the Kosovo region in Serbia. Serbian Orthodox-41%, Roman Catholic-32%, Muslim-12%, None-12%.

VI. CHRONOLOGY

500-700		Slavic tribes migrate into Balkans
900-1000		Serbs accept Orthodox religion, Croats accept Roman Catholicism
1000-1100		Serbs rise against Byzantine Empire to establish Zeta and Raska
1100-1200		Stefan Nemamja unites Serbs, estalishes base for Serb kingdom
1331-55		Serbs reach height of power under Stefan Dusan
1389		Serb Czar Lazar and Balkan Coalition defeated at Kosovo; Serbia becomes vassal of Ottoman Turks
1463		Turks conquer Slavic Kingdom of Bosnia
1779		Montenegrins gain Turkish recognition for independence
1804-13		Serbs under Karageorge unsuccessfully revolt against Turks
1815-30		Serbs revolt again and gain autonomy
1856		Russian defeat in Crimean war places Serbia under control of Great Powers' collective protection
1875-77		Insurrections against Turks; Russian Serbia and Montenegro champion Balkan liberation
1878		Turks defeated; Serbia gains total independence; Bosnia-Herzogovinia awarded to Austria-Hungary
1912-13		First Balkan War--Serbia and Montenegro join coalition against Turkey; Turks lose some territory
1913		Second Balkan War--Serbs attack Bulgaria, take Macedonia
1914		Assassination of Archduke Ferdinand starts World War I; Serbia fights Austro-Hungarian Empire
1915		Serbia collapses
1918		United Kingdom of Serbs, Croats and Slovenes proclaimed, made up of Bosnia-Herzogovinia, Croatia, Slovenia
1934		Joins Romania and Germany in Balkan mutual non-agression pact King Alexander is assassinated
1941		Yugoslavia is occupied by Axis; Croatian fascist state and Serbian rump state formed Bulgaria takes Macedonia, Hungary takes Vojvodina Resistance results in Tito's Communist movement
1945	April	20 year friendship and mutual assistance treaty signed with USSR
	October	Opposition leaders resign from Yugoslav cabinet
	November	Tito's National Front wins election boycotted by opposition and received 90% of vote
1948	March	Soviet-Yugoslav dispute erupts
	June	Soviets denounce Tito for "nationalist deviations"
1949	September	Soviets denounce friendship treaty with Yugoslavia, other East European nations follow suit
	October	Alleged border incidents between Hungary and Yugoslavia
1950	June	Workers' councils established
	July-October	Border incidents with Bulgaria
1951	April	Yugoslav government decentralized and reformed
	May	Compulsory food deliveries abolished, farmers allowed to sell on free market

1953	November	Yugoslav ambassadors return to Bulgaria and Hungary
	December	Relations with Albania are restored
1954	June	Diplomatic relations with Romania restored
	August	Joins Balkan Pact with Greece and Turkey
1955	May	Khrushchev visits Yugoslavia
	June	Feud with USSR ends
1957	October	Djilas expelled after publishing New Class
	November	Yugoslavia does not attend Moscow meeting of Communist parties
1958	April	New Yugoslavia party program approved, criticized by Soviets as "revisionist"
1963	April	New constitution replaces 1946 constitution
1964	March	US grants Most Favored Nation status
1966	July	Interior Minister Rankovic and followers removed from government
	October	Reorganization of Yugoslav League of Communists
1967	April	Yugoslav change in cabinet personnel follows plan for lessening party influence
1970	April	Croatian nationalists assassinate Yugoslav ambassador to Sweden
1971	December	Croatian nationalist riots lead to resignation of top Croatian leaders
1972	December	Expulsion of Croatian nationalists from throughout Party and government
1973	February	4th Yugoslav constitution since World War II gives greater power to workers through factory councils
	October	Agreement with USSR on industrial cooperation, non-interference in internal affairs
1977	January	Tito rejects Brezhnev's call for more military cooperation
1980	April	Yugoslavia signs trade agreement with European Economic Community Tito dies
1981	March	State of emergency declared in Kosovo
	April	Albanian separatist riots are put down; Yugoslav embassy in Albania is bombed
	August	Albanians expelled from Yugoslav Party

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Below are sections on each country in Eastern Europe. Part One (I) of each lists the most recent comprehensive bibliography for the country. Part II is an example of that country's own publications (or propaganda, as the case may be) about itself. Part III includes books on politics, history, and society, while the final section (IV) lists some sample literary works.

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EASTERN EUROPE
WORD SEARCH

The following words are hidden in this puzzle. They may appear horizontally, vertically, diagonally, and/or backwards.

ALIA
ALBANIA
BALKANS
BERLIN
BLACK SEA
BOHEMIA
BRATISLAVA
BRNO
BUCHAREST
BUDAPEST
BULGARIA
CARPATHIANS
CEAUSESCU
CMEA
COMMUNISM
CRACOW
CZECHOSLOVAKIA
DANUBE
DEBRECEN
EAST GERMANY
GDANSK
GOULASH
HONECKER
HUNGARY
HUSAK
JARUZELSKI
KADAR
MAGYAR
PIEROGI
PLOVDIV
POLAND
POPE JOHN PAUL II
PRAGUE
ROMANIA
SARAJEVO
SLOVAKIA
SOFIA
SOLIDARITY
SZEGED
TIRANA
TITO
VISTULA
WALESA
WARSAW PACT
YUGOSLAVIA
ZHIVKOV

```
T S R A K A B O H E M I A I N A M O R
L A V I S T U L A S I J T E G S G L A
S R G E N V J D L R A S S D O N A Y Y
K A H W A D E O M R H K E E U A Y U G
O J Y P D U V S U Q U W R B L I V G A
U E T S G A D Z X M N N A R A H O O M
W V I A K N E H B I G I H E S T V S J
O O R I Y L U I G E A E C C H A R L X
C P A V S S H V T V R L U E D P A A N
A K D K A R D K I F Y L B N G R D V P
R W I K C E F O A D W E I A T A A I L
C Q L T G K U V I S V Y M N N C K A D
Z W O S R C A G R C Z O Y L F I S N S
E A S T G E R M A N Y E L A I L A P S
C L R F L N N H G T A Z G P K L I G N
H E J V O O C S L R C N T E O W F A A
O S D M D H N B U H T A C P D J O B K
S A L S C I K Q B U D A P E S T S P L
L N P I E R O G I A B E T W M Z I J A
O B T N Y X N O N K R U C B A F D T B
V V K U M Z R U A N A R I T D S N Q O
A O O M B O B R A T I S L A V A R A R
K L U M T E L W Y K B L A C K S E A J
I P Q O P O P E J O H N P A U L I I W
A E M C E A U S E S C U D R F I M H S
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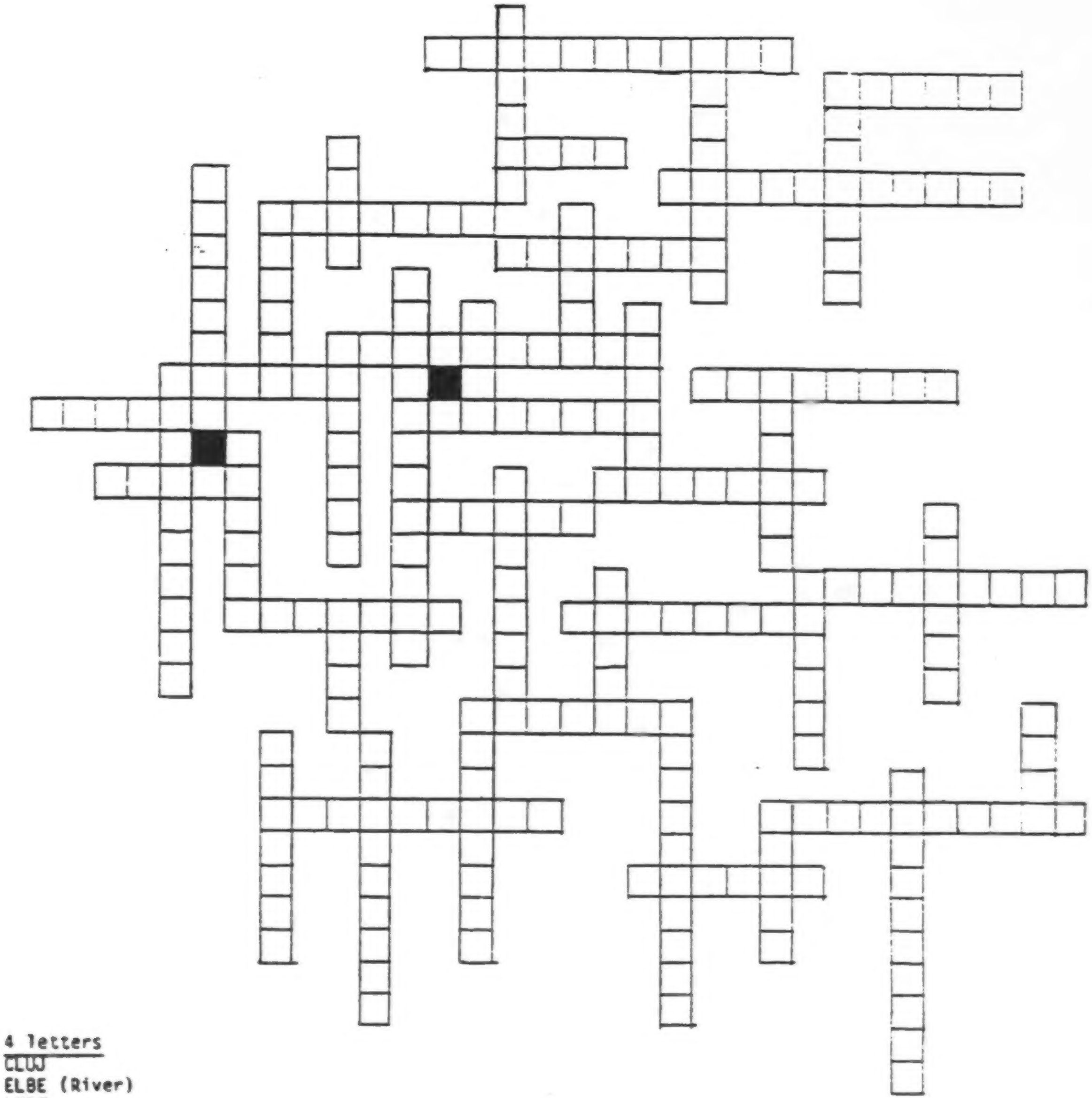
Indiana University
Russian & East European Institute

EASTERN EUROPE
GEOGRAPHY PUZZLE

Fit the words into the grid.



4 letters
CLUJ
ELBE (River)
LODZ
ODER (River)
TITO

5 letters
BLACK (Sea)
SOFIA
TISZA (River)
VARNA

6 letters
BOSNIA
DANUBE (River)
GALATI
GDANSK
KRAKOW
LUBLIN
POZNAN
PRAGUE
VLTAVA (River)
WALESA (Lech)
WARSAW
ZAGREB

7 letters
BALATON
BALKANS (Mts.)
BOHEMIA
DRUZHBA (Oil/Gas Pipeline)
PLOESTI
PLOVDIV
SILESIA
VISTULA (River)

8 letters
ADRIATIC (Sea)
BELGRADE
BUDAPEST
DALMATIA
MASURIAN (Lakes)
SARAJEVO
SLOVAKIA

9 letters
BUCHAREST
DUBROVNIK
LJUBLJANA

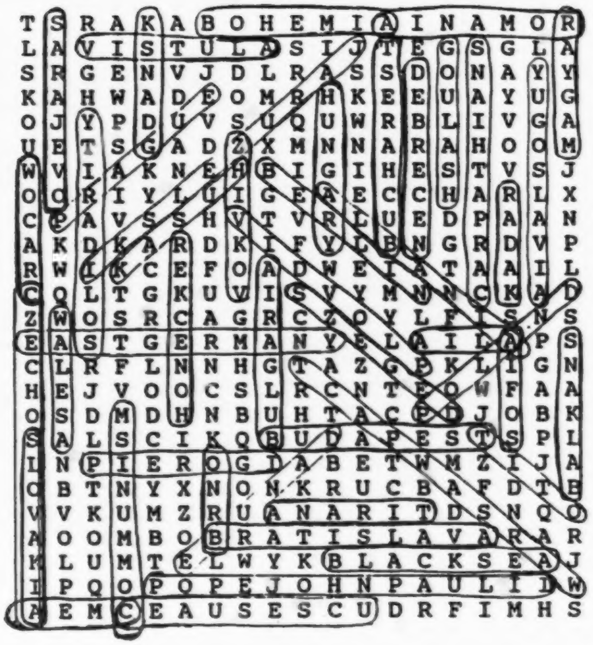
10 letters
BIALOWIEZA (Forest)
BRATISLAVA
MONTENEGRO
SOLIDARITY
WARSAW PACT

11 letters
CARPATHIANS (Mts.)
KARLOVY VARY

12 letters
TRANSYLVANIA

Indiana University
Russian & East European Institute

EASTERN EUROPE
WORD SEARCH



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T S R A K A B O H E M I A I N A M O R
L A V I S T U L A S I J T E G S G L A
S R G E N V J D L R A S S D O N A Y Y
K A H W A D E O M R H K E E U A Y U G
O J Y P D U V S U Q U W R B L I V G A
U E T S G A D Z X M N N A R A H O O M
W V I A K N E H B I G I H E S T V S J
O O R I Y L U I G E A E C C H A R L X
C P A V S S H V T V R L U E D P A A N
A K D K A R D K I F Y L B N G R D V P
R W L K C E F O A D W E I A T A A I L
C Q L T G K U V I S V Y M N N C K A D
Z W O S R C A G R C Z O Y L F I S N S
E A S T G E R M A N Y E L A I L A P S
C L R F L N N H G T A Z G P K L I G N
H E J V O O C S L R C N T E O W F A A
O S D M D H N B U H T A C P D J O B K
S A L S C I K Q B U D A P E S T S P L
L N P I E R O G I A B E T W M Z I J A
O B T N Y X N O N K R U C B A F D T E
V V K U M Z R U A N A R I T D S N Q O
A O O M B O B R A T I S L A V A R A R
K L U M T E L W Y K B L A C K S E A J
I P Q O P O P E J O H N P A U L I I W
A E M C E A U S E S C U D R F I M H S
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EASTERN EUROPE PUZZLE

SOLUTION

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                            K
                        C A R P A T H I A N S
                            A           D       P R A G U E
                            K           R       L
                  C         O D E R     I       O
          M       L         W         K A R L O V Y V A R Y
          A   D R U Z H B A     S       T       D
          S   A   J         P L O E S T I       I
          U   N       T         F       C       V
          R   U       R   T     I   G
          I   B   B R A T I S L A V A
        W A L E S A   N * T         L   B E L G R A D E
P O Z N A N       L   S L O V A K I A       U
        R * Z     A   Y             T       B
    T I S Z A     T   L     D     V I S T U L A
        A   G     O   V L T A V A           I         E
        W   R     N   A     L               N         D
        P   E         N     M     V           B U C H A R E S T
        A   B O H E M I A   A   S A R A J E V O       N
        C         L   A     T     R           S       S
        T         B         I     N           N       K
                  E       B A L K A N S       I             L
              S     D     U           O       A             O
              I     U     D           L           M         D
              L J U B L J A N A       I     B I A L O W I E Z A
              E     R     P           D     L       N
              S     O     E         W A R S A W     T
              I     V     S           R     C       E
              A     N     T           I     K       N
                    I                 T             E
                    K                 Y             G
                                                    R
                                                    O
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The sources for this material on Eastern Europe have been compiled in a number of ways. Each section was assembled in a different manner. The Alphabet and Language sections are based on Fodor's Eastern Europe travel book (New York: David Mckay Co., 1980) and on Fodor's Yugoslavia (New York, David Mckay Co., 1979). The chronologies for each East European country was based on Karen Darwisha, Gorbachev, Reform, and Eastern Europe (...) and the Life World Library books on Eastern Europe: Czechoslovakia, Hungary, and Poland, Godfrey Blunden (New York: Time Incorporated, 1965) and on The Balkans , by Edmund Stillman (New York: Time Incorporated, 1964). The historical sections of each country was based essentially on Teresa Rakowska-Harmstone,ed., Communism in Eastern Europe (Bloomington: Indiana University Press, 1979) and J.F. Brown, Eastern Europe and Communist Rule (Durham: Duke University Press, 1988). The government section of each country was based also on Eastern European Government and Politics by Vaclav Benes, Andrew Gyorgy and George Stambuk (New York: Harper's and Row, 1966). Some of the individual works that were used are Czechoslovakia by Vratislav Busek and Nicolas Spulber,eds. (New York: Praeger, 1957) and Yugoslavia edited by Robert Byrnes (New York: Praeger, 1957).